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[Entered at the New York City Post Office as second-class mail matter.]

The Nation is published and owned by the New York Evening Post Co. Oswald Garrison Villard, President; William J. Patterson, Treasurer; Paul Elmer More, Editor.

Three dollars per year in advance postpaid, in any part of the United States or Mexico; to Canada \$3.50, and to foreign countries comprised in the Postal Union \$4.00.

Address THE NATION, Box 794, New York.
Publication Office, 20 Vesey Street.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 6, 1911.

The Week

An excellent beginning was made by the House Democrats at Washington in their caucus on Saturday. The saving of \$200,000 in the annual pay-roll of the House may not be in itself a matter of tremendous consequence to the Treasury of the United States, but the spirit indicated in it is of the most vital importance. The very point where economy pinches, in the mind of the average Congressman, is in the cutting out of places which he has a chance to parcel out as political favors; if the Democratic Representatives have been able to resist the temptation of keeping these "jobs" open for their hangers-on, it ought to be easy for them to put the knife in deep where the cutting does not come so near home. The efficient leadership which must have gone to bringing this about seems also to have been displayed in a number of other directions. A sense of responsibility for the success of the Democratic conduct of the House at a time at once so auspicious and so critical as the present is evidently felt by the new majority, and is shown in taking hold vigorously of such questions as that of the organization of the House, the improvement of the new rules of procedure, etc.

The harmony and definiteness of purpose that were manifested give promise of a record for the Democrats in the extra session which will greatly strengthen the party before the country and have a most important influence on the Presidential campaign of 1912. In committing the party to the Canadian reciprocity agreement, the caucus follows up the good record made in Congress on that subject in the last session, and points to a still more united front upon it in the session which has now begun. By this support of President Taft's measure the Democrats will procure for themselves the lion's share of the credit for the achievement of this forward step in national policy, upon which the Republicans made a sorry showing in the Sixty-first Congress. It is perhaps too much to hope that the party will be piloted through the shoals and narrows

of tariff revision without some trouble and mortification, but it looks at present as though a clear-cut and intelligent programme would be kept to the front and on the whole faithfully followed. In giving to the election of United States Senators by direct vote of the people the first place in the party's programme, the caucus has recognized the all but unanimous desire of the nation for this reform; and we trust that it also recognizes the virtual necessity of avoiding the purely factitious difficulties which were permitted to bring about its defeat in the last session of Congress. Perhaps most significant of all, the alleged impossibility of making the House organization work except through the autocratic rule of a czar-like Speaker has been manfully grappled with.

Tariff for revenue, with incidental and reasonable protection—this about sums up the position of Representative Underwood of Alabama, who is to be chairman of the Committee on Ways and Means in the Democratic House of Representatives. Mr. Underwood's method of testing the propriety of certain tariff schedules, as to their conformity with this principle, is interesting both from a logical and from a practical standpoint. When importations constitute only an insignificant percentage of our total annual supply of a given class of goods, he regards this as proof that the duty is unjustifiably high—this on the double ground that it is not a true revenue-producer and that it rules out competition. The first point is self-evident; in the second the case is perhaps not so obviously clear, since the absence of importations may be due to our own advantages rather than to the prohibitiveness of the tariff. But Mr. Underwood would doubtless answer that if the non-importation is due to our advantages in the way of cheap production, then there can be no harm in cutting down the duty, which is supposed—in so far as it is protective—to be laid on to counterbalance disadvantages, not to confirm advantages.

On the whole, while this test of a tariff tax, upon the vague principle of a revenue tariff with incidental protection, is of course not an instrument of

scientific precision, there is a great deal to be said for it as against the modern Republican expedient of determining the difference of cost of production by special research. This latter method is certainly difficult of application and will unquestionably leave room for a vast amount of difference of opinion; whereas Mr. Underwood's plan, which goes on the maxim that the proof of the pudding is in the eating, has the merit of simplicity at least. Call a tariff prohibitive when it works like one is the idea—and it is not so bad, as far as it goes. If we were to add the further requirement that when the tariff rate is on its face unreasonable—whether prohibitive or not—it must be cut down to a reasonable figure, the two things together would go far toward constituting a satisfactory guide to practical tariff reform.

Monday's decision by the Supreme Court considerably limits the scope of the so-called "commodities clause decision" of 1909. It declares, in effect, that stock ownership by the railway in the producing company may not be so employed as to continue the absolute control of the transportation company over such production. As the Chief Justice puts the matter, even this stock ownership cannot entitle the railway "to do by indirection that which the commodities clause prohibits"—something which would plainly be done "by the unnecessary commingling of the affairs of the producing company with its own so as to cause them to be one and inseparable." Apparently, therefore, a railway may lawfully hold control of the stock of producing companies along its line, but may not exercise such control. This further interpretation of the law may have been foreseen by one of the railways concerned in the original suit, the Lackawanna, which organized, after the decision of 1909, a \$6,800,000 corporation to take over the railway company's coal-mine properties, the stock of the new company being offered pro rata to Lackawanna shareholders, and the officers and directors of the coal company not duplicating those of the railway company.

The Department of Agriculture an-

nounces that it is ready to begin operations looking to the purchase of land by the National Forest Reservation Commission created under the Weeks Law. The law was passed with special reference to the creation of national forests in the Appalachian and the White Mountains, and under it the Secretary of Agriculture is to examine, locate, and recommend for purchase such lands as in his judgment may be necessary for regulating the flow of navigable streams. These purchases are not restricted to particular regions, except that they may be made only in States whose legislatures have consented to such acquisition. New Hampshire is one of these, and the first lands to be examined will be those which the law was particularly aimed to reach. Although the area in need of protection is much larger than the Government can purchase, the Department hopes that careful selection will do much for the permanent improvement of the watersheds. Since high prices cannot be paid, it is probable that little land having a heavy stand of merchantable timber can be bought, nor will good agricultural districts be considered. Owners may reserve the right to remove valuable mineral deposits which are known to exist, and Secretary Wilson hopes for the display of such public spirit as will result in procuring lands at moderate or even nominal prices. The lands acquired will be protected from fire, and the growth of the timber will be improved as much as possible. They will not be game preserves, but will continue to be open to the public for hunting and fishing in accordance with the State laws.

Fire destruction in the Capitol at Albany being only partial, it is to be taken for granted that the building will be "restored." Even so, the cost to the State will be, it is estimated, \$4,000,000 or more. And although the entire appropriation may not have to be made by the present Legislature, it is evident that this unexpected disaster, with its consequent large outlay, will pretty surely make it impossible for Gov. Dix to keep his promise to reduce the annual budget. That he could have cut as much as \$4,000,000 from last year's appropriations was, in any event, highly improbable. The large expense which the State is regularly under for public buildings—prisons, asylums, hospitals,

and so on—is one of the main reasons why the budget has gone on increasing. All this work of construction is paid for directly out of current revenues. In the city of New York, bonds are issued for such building, and so nothing but the interest charges at once made a yearly liability. Gov. Hughes more than once dwelt upon the different way in which the State does its building, with the inevitable result that higher taxes go with the policy of paying as you go. If the Capitol had been entirely destroyed, so that an outlay of \$15,000,000 or \$20,000,000 for a new structure had to be faced, it is altogether likely that some way of borrowing the money would have been proposed.

It is highly probable that the so-called "Gaynor Charter" for New York city will not even be taken up seriously by the Legislature, in the urgency of other business after the recess. This will tend to prevent anything like full discussion for the present. The new document contains several excellent proposals. One is to reduce the enormous bulk and clear up the ambiguities of the existing Charter. There will be opposition, however, to the plan of cutting down extensively the powers of the elective Controller, and transferring many of them to the appointive Chamberlain. With the latter official to-day what he is known to be, the suggestion seems almost jocose. Nor do we think that the soundest opinion will be with the Mayor in his proposal to replace the present Board of Education with a salaried Board of seven members. That the existing membership of more than forty is unwieldy and ought to be reduced to ten or fifteen, we believe that most authorities on education agree. But the idea that the smaller body will need to be paid for their services seems to us mistaken. We are confident that competent men and women can be found who will be glad to do this work for the city without a money reward. And if the notion is to get seven educational experts who ought to be paid for their time, that, too, is to go on the wrong track. There should be, as there are, high experts in the department, but they should remain under the direction of the Board of Education, and not enter its membership. For the best service there, we need men and women of large intelligence and entire de-

votion to the best interests of the public schools, who will pass upon plans and determine policies, not with technical expertness, but in a spirit of wise general administration.

Nearly six hundred different persons contributed a total somewhat above \$57,000, in amounts ranging from \$10,000 to one cent, to the campaign of Professor Merriam in Chicago. Names and amounts have been published in a sworn statement. As the Merriam primary campaign cost \$40,000, here is a grand total of virtually \$100,000 spent in the effort to elect a Mayor. The largest contributor gave \$8,000 to the primary campaign, and \$10,000 to the present one. What the two contests have cost Harrison is uncertain, as his list of contributions is admittedly incomplete. His unsworn statement of his personal receipts contains items of sums from ten cents to \$4,000, and totals \$17,000. The largest item of the Merriam expenditures was \$15,000, which went for advertising. For salaries and expense of headquarters \$9,000 was paid out, while ward headquarters and organization cost above \$6,000. It is not just, however, to saddle these amounts upon the Mayorality campaign alone, as the ward contests must have been aided by them. The ordinary voter does not begrudge the dollar which a rough calculation may indicate as his share of the preliminary outlay, so long as he can trace its expenditure and knows it to be honest. He may, however, feel chagrined over the results. Despite the outlay of money, Carter H. Harrison has been elected Mayor, for the fifth time, by a plurality of nearly 18,000.

A gleam of hope for the fitting recognition of art in New York is given by the action of the National Academy of Design in adopting a new plan to procure an adequate building for exhibition purposes. The scheme is to bring about a union of all the principal art organizations of the city, and to seek to house them under one roof. It seems to be the expectation that this larger project will appeal to wealthy men, who are notoriously fond of combinations, and might produce the necessary funds, if not for an Academy, then for an Art Trust. Be this as it may, everybody must hope that in some way and soon the reproach may be taken away from

New York that it is more inhospitable to artists than is Philadelphia or Baltimore or Pittsburgh, not to mention scores of European cities.

San Francisco's lost opportunity in the matter of housing conditions is pointed out by the secretary of the Housing Association of that city in the *Survey*. Here was a city built on the hills, swept clean by fire. "Surely the builders would grasp their unrivalled opportunity." But to-day, instead of a city of homes, it is a city of tenements. The primary reason for this condition is found in the necessity, following the fire, for shelter, the kind being less important than the promptness with which it was provided. The result was that in less than a year the city was face to face with a housing problem which there was no law to keep from growing worse and more formidable. A tenement-house ordinance, however, was passed, not without difficulty, based upon the New York law, with its requirements for light and air. Even these restrictions were soon evaded, and the ordinance itself bitterly opposed by speculative builders and property holders. It was seen that a State law was imperative. Here again the opposition was so strong that the New York law was all that could be obtained. The latest phase of the struggle centres about the "Romeo flat," which, despite its common stairway, evades the tenement law by virtue of its separate entrances. A bill to remedy this defect is under consideration by the California Legislature, but it is unfortunate that prevention was not chosen instead of cure, and a great calamity thus turned, in part, into a blessing.

The celebration of the Bible tercentenary is being made the occasion for earnest demonstrations in behalf of international arbitration. We take it that this is more than our human fondness for tying up subjects that happen to be to the fore in the day's news. That Mr. Taft's proposals for a comprehensive British-American arbitration treaty should have come just in the three hundredth year of the English Bible, as we know it to-day, is a coincidence; but it is one of the dramatic coincidences that impose themselves upon the popular imagination because of their extraordinary aptness. In a very real sense the

Bible has been, to use Mr. Taft's words, the precious tie that has bound together the Old and New Worlds. The book has been not merely a common heritage for the two peoples; it has played a most important rôle in the actual peopling of the new continent from the old. It was because men in the seventeenth century read their Bibles differently that New England was founded. To-day the tendency is to pick out in the Bible what all men can agree on. Its actual history has been that of a beneficently disruptive and a beneficently unifying force.

Diaz's message to the Mexican Congress makes the mistake of yielding but not yielding enough. The promises held out by the aged President would have been sufficient to bring appeasement a year ago. But it is idle to suppose that after putting the erstwhile dictator on the defensive, the revolutionary leaders will be content with a policy of shutting their eyes and opening their mouths and seeing what happens to them. For a shrewd man of affairs the Mexican President has latterly been peculiarly blind to his own best interests, in the highest sense. Of earthly power he has surely had more than enough. In the course of nature he must have been prepared to pass from the scene in a few years at most. Had he chosen to retire with good grace, he might not only have had the nominating of his successor, but would have gone into private life amidst the plaudits of his countrymen, his faults forgotten, his services freely acknowledged. Diaz at eighty, unsatisfied with forty years of sovereignty, playing the dog in the manger, is surely less imposing a figure than Diaz the great President emeritus would have been.

Within less than three months from the time of his arrest, the London murderer, Morrison, has been tried, found guilty, had his appeal passed upon, and been handed over to his fate. Coming closely after the courts' procedure in the Crippen case, this affirmation of the law in England as being law and not a game, throws our own system into shameful relief. Consider what is now going on at Cincinnati in the case of one George B. Cox. This most vicious example of the political boss has at last been haled within sight of the reward that has come to Abe Ruef. To escape

this fate George B. Cox has been fighting in the courts, not to prove his innocence, but to prevent his case from going before a judge whom he fears. Hence we have just had the following beautiful example of the functioning of our judicial machine: By the vote of two judges against one judge, it has been decided to issue a mandamus against a fourth judge, ordering him to pass on the question why George B. Cox should not be tried before a fifth judge—the one he is afraid of. Why blame the Socialists for railing at our courts? It would be more than human to omit the opportunity.

The German Chancellor admitted a week ago that by the principle of unrestricted arbitration two nations like Great Britain and the United States could dispose of all matters of controversy at present in sight; but if new questions arose arbitration might prove inadequate. Now, at first sight it may appear to be very practical and very statesmanlike to scan the future for objections to a scheme that is eminently desirable in the present. But actually there are occasions when burrowing into the future is only borrowing trouble. Especially is this true of an innovation like international courts of arbitration against which not even the most ardent opponent can say that it will do harm. The worst that can happen to a system of universal arbitration is that it may fail. To go on constructing hypothetical situations in which arbitration would not work is to argue in a truly undergraduate manner. What human institution is there that does not on occasion break down? If the German Chancellor were working for the legalization of monogamy by the Reichstag, he could point to our modern flourishing divorce courts as proving that contingencies must arise when marriage is a failure. The German Chancellor is probably not in favor of abolishing all courts of criminal justice and reenacting the law of fist and claw. Yet phenomena like the Higher Law and thriving alienists eloquently attest the very frequent breaking down of the laws against murder. To reject universal arbitration because it won't create heaven on earth, is childish. The point is whether arbitration cannot do something to make earth a bit more inhabitable than it now is.

LABOR UNIONS AND EFFICIENCY.

Mr. Frank B. Gilbreth, the building contractor who has worked out a system of scientific brick-laying, has a strike on his hands at Glens Falls, N. Y., where he sought to put the new method into effect in erecting a large mill. The case is a good concrete illustration of the general difficulty of getting labor unions and experts in efficient management to bring their minds together. On its face, and looking solely at the question of visible results, the matter seems to be simplicity itself. Mr. Gilbreth proposed to cut down the hours of the bricklayers from eight to seven and one-half, and to increase their pay from 55 cents an hour to 75. This great gain to labor he was able to offer by means of his mechanical and other devices to make the process of brick-laying simpler and more rapid. But the plan involved keeping a close tally on each man's work, the bonus being paid for actual number of bricks laid, and the tendency being, of course, to put a premium on first-class work, and gradually to weed out inferior workmen. It was on the latter account, mainly, that the men struck. Their union would not consent that any of its members who, for age or other reason, were not up to a high standard of efficiency, should be discriminated against. They demand a rate per hour alike for all, with no watch upon the output of the individual bricklayer.

We must not be too hasty in denouncing this and a similar attitude on the part of many labor unions as the height of unreason. Something is to be said for their point of view. With much in it that is short-sighted, selfish, obstructive to progress, and even tyrannical, it has an element of human nature in it and often of humanity that cannot be overlooked. It will not do to scoff at the fraternal feeling which leads laboring men to think of their fellows who are too old or too feeble physically to endure the extreme of competitive conditions. Nor can we dismiss without a hearing the plea that a man should not be treated exactly as if he were a lever or a cog in a machine, to be speeded to the limit and thrown away when worn out. This is, of course, a grossly distorted view of what scientific management aims at, but it is one which thousands of workingmen have firmly got in their heads, and it has to be reck-

oned with in the long work of conciliation and adjustment which will be necessary before the gospel of efficiency is accepted. The new processes are bound to be adopted. No one can doubt that who believes that knowledge is certain to expel ignorance, and skill vanquish blundering. But there will first have to be a great deal of delay and friction and tentative experimenting. Before there can be full success there must be a clarifying of men's minds regarding the fundamental principles involved.

The labor organizations number many able and tenacious men among their leaders; and they must be made to see that the unions cannot afford to place their huge bulk across the track of advancing industrial efficiency. Such objections as they have to the new methods must not be stated so as to make it appear that they stand for waste instead of saving, or that they are going to fall again into the old fallacies of hostility to labor-saving machinery. There is too much of the latter in the attitude of some representatives of organized labor—as evidenced, for example, in the persistent opposition to the introduction of power presses in the Bureau of Engraving at Washington—and there is also too plain a feeling on the part of many unions that the thing for laboring men to do is to "make work." So far as this is at the bottom of antagonism to the new plans for efficient management, it puts organized labor into a position wholly indefensible. Civilization has advanced by eliminating work, not making it, and the laws of progress will in this respect remain unchanged in the future. But hope lies in the fact that few labor leaders can be found to-day openly opposing the use of improved machinery, even though it temporarily throws some men out of work, or avowing the doctrine that the interest of workingmen is to have the world's manufacturing and building done on the scheme of "ca'canny"—that is, as slowly and awkwardly as possible. There is thus no acknowledged radical difference in principle between the unions and the efficiency engineers, so that, in time, it ought to be feasible to arrive at a working agreement between the two.

This should come along the lines of a common understanding that a great gain is to be won by scientific management, and that then the fair share of workingmen in that gain is to be rea-

sonably determined. That is where the labor unions will come in with their power to make collective bargains. There is no reason why they could not function as well under the new conditions as under the present. But they cannot even exist, they will be destroyed, if they set themselves unyieldingly against the application of science to industry. Trained minds and observant intelligence are being directed to-day in many trades to the question how to reduce human effort to the minimum, and to heighten production with lessened exertion. That can mean only a vast good, and any man or organization that withstands it must be thought of as an enemy of human progress. The questions how to use that good, how to divide it, how best to make it the basis of social content and further advance, will press for reasonable decision later. But on the main issue, the previous question, of scientific management—which means the enlargement of knowledge, the economy of muscle, and the freeing of man from useless labor—there can be no serious debate. The new principle is seizing upon men's minds in all countries, and the industrial democracy that refuses to admit it and act upon it is in danger of perishing. The man or union who resists the great innovation is in a fair way to commit what Doctor Johnson called "civil suicide."

THE SENATORIAL OUTCOME.

To Judge O'Gorman it is due that his qualifications for the New York Senatorship should be examined to-day just as if he had been brought forward and elected on January 17. In that case one would have had to say, as now, that he has the reputation of being a good lawyer and an able and honest judge. But one would also have had to say that he had long been identified with Tammany, was on friendly terms with Murphy, whose rule he had never questioned or opposed, and that his election to the Senate would be a distinct triumph for Tammany and its boss. All this is in no wise dimmed by the fact that Senator Roosevelt declares that Judge O'Gorman would have been from the first acceptable to the insurgents, or that Mr. Stetson, as long ago as February 7, mentioned O'Gorman's name as among those to whom there would be no objection. We must look at things

as they are. It is true that Murphy was not able to force the election of Sheehan, whom he did not really want, or of Cohalan, whom he did want, or of his second or third or fourth preference, but that, nevertheless, the final naming of the Senator was done by him. Judge O'Gorman's views on public questions were absolutely unknown. After his election, he put forth a statement of them which is fairly satisfactory. But what a howling absurdity it is first to elect a man and then find out who he is and what he thinks! It is not surprising that the advocates of the direct election of Senators at Washington are already seizing upon the manner of Judge O'Gorman's election as the clinching argument for their cause.

In any fair summing up of the long struggle at Albany we must "consider our mercies," and first among these we reckon the defeat of the plot to elect Mr. Sheehan. We write without a particle of personal animosity against him, but it is impossible to be blind to the fact that his election would have been an incalculable public misfortune. This we assert partly on account of the way in which his nomination by the caucus was originally procured. No one denies—he himself has virtually admitted—that the thing was done by his being able to bring to bear upon Murphy forces too powerful for the boss to resist. And that these forces were as abhorrent as they were secret, nobody has had the hardihood to question. But behind this ugly fact, of itself enough to damn any candidate, lay the early and unforgettable political record of Mr. Sheehan. Now, on that subject there has been a good deal of mushy talk. It is said that we ought not to fling old political misdeeds in a man's face. Agreed, in all that relates to him personally and in a private capacity, provided he is striving to rise on his dead past to better things. But publicly, it is of the highest importance neither to forget nor to forgive a career such as Mr. Sheehan ran in the eyes of all the people of this State. It is not only right, it is desirable and essential, that it should pursue him like a remorseless Nemesis to the end of his days. For consider what the example of his success would have meant to observant youth. They would have read in it warrant for practising the basest arts of politics, for defying public sentiment, for outraging the best

feeling of one's own party, all in the belief that such things would be condoned when the time was ripe to strike for high office. From that demoralizing lesson the young men of New York have been preserved; and in the frustration of Mr. Sheehan's ambition they will see the wholesome moral that such acts as he was notoriously guilty of are ever afterwards his fatal shadows.

This great and useful moral demonstration could not have been made had it not been that enough Democratic members of the Legislature were found with sufficient principle and courage to defy and nullify all the trickery and tyranny of the caucus. To the insurgents in the Democratic ranks at Albany we must make our acknowledgments for the pluck and determination with which they have stood together, despite the most tremendous pressure, and saved the State and their party from Sheehan. They have been spoken of as disrupters of the party, and more responsible than anybody else for the spectacle of Democratic quarrelling and futility. But they have been really the men to give honest folk some heart of grace for the future. If there had been no dissent, no open revolt, we might well have despaired of the Democratic party in New York. If everybody had lain down under the decree of Murphy, as meekly as the Republicans all those years permitted Platt to set his foot upon their necks, it might have been said that there was no hope. But the bold fight of the Democratic insurgents, which some have deplored, was the cheering sign that life and conscience were not extinct, that manhood had not wholly gone out of the party, and that a spirit had been roused which would leave the Tammany boss in no doubt that men would always hereafter be found to despise his swords. And we are confident that those who to-day are hailing and thanking Senator Roosevelt and the men who so gallantly stood with him all these weary weeks, are but anticipating the verdict of the political historian when they say that these men performed the greatest service to their party.

In rejoicing, however, at the good fight that has been fought against the powers of evil, we must not forget how great those powers are or how menacing they remain. Say what we will about what we have escaped, what we still have to face is appalling enough. Mur-

phy's strength, even when clipped and crippled, is the startling and terrible thing. That he was ready to use it unscrupulously, and without a single thought for the good of his party and the welfare of the State, we knew; but few could have expected the malign exhibition which he has given, with its resultant disgrace to the Democracy of New York. If such a leadership as his is now known to be is not challenged and broken, then there is no limit to the outrages and insults which honest Democrats will endure.

THE NEW JERSEY ELECTIONS LAW.

While the direct primary which both parties in New York promised hangs fire, the reform of New Jersey's primary and election laws is nearly consummated. The so-called Geran bill has passed the Assembly and is expected to go through the Senate with only slight changes. This measure, which it is admitted by all would have had no chance of enactment but for Gov. Wilson's vigorous advocacy, contains some novel features, and is in general so thoroughgoing as fairly to revolutionize the practice in New Jersey. That State has long been in crying need of some such improvement. Its ballot laws, in particular, have been very loose and open to abuses. The whole question is dealt with comprehensively in the Geran bill, which, with its forty-four folio pages, is a somewhat formidable document.

To begin with the novelties, we note a striking new departure in the method provided for appointing the officials who make up the boards of registry and election. These officials are almost everywhere named by party bosses or committees. Their positions are among the petty rewards for party workers; and it often happens that incompetent or positively dishonest men are selected. Under the proposed statute, however, these appointments are to be made only after examination and in accordance with civil-service rules. The offices are to be divided equally between the parties, as is proper, but the nominees are to be tested as to eyesight, the ability to add and subtract correctly, and to write a legible hand, good health, etc.; and an eligible list is thus to be created from which appointments shall be made by lot. All this involves, of course, a good deal of machinery, but the end aimed at is certainly worth attaining. If the pri-

mary system is to be extended and safeguarded, and if the spread of independent voting is to make the need of accurate and trustworthy election clerks more imperative, the law-makers are justified in taking the necessary steps.

Another unique provision of the New Jersey law is for the election of delegates to National Conventions by a direct primary, nominations in a given district to be made by petition of not less than one hundred members of any political party. The Secretary of State is to certify such nominations to county clerks, who will proceed to print the names on the official ballots for the primary. The bill provides that candidates for the position of delegates to National Conventions may be grouped together, and that they may have placed opposite their names the candidate for President whom they favor, under the caption "Choice for President." This is something new in our politics. It furnishes an opportunity to the voters to express their wishes in regard to the Presidency much more directly and emphatically than has been the case in the past. Everything, to be sure, will depend upon the zeal and spirit which are brought to the new device, but it is clear that it offers an excellent means of preventing a party boss from "swinging" the delegation of the State in a National Convention away from the Presidential candidate really desired by the majority of the party.

Into the minute details of the conduct of the direct primary in the various divisions of the State, with the careful provisions for a correct registry list, and the full opportunity of putting names on the primary ballot by petition, we cannot here go. Suffice it to say that the Geran bill sets out to do in complete fashion what public opinion in New Jersey has long been demanding—that is, to provide the means by which the electors may, if they choose, exercise complete control over party nominations and conventions. As regards the election of United States Senators, an approach toward direct election is made, though not as close as that adopted in Oregon. Candidates for the Assembly or the State Senate may sign either one of two statements, the first promising to vote for the candidate for the United States Senate who has received the highest vote in his party primary; or the second, declaring that

he will regard the primary vote as only a recommendation which he is at liberty to disregard. Here, again, the people can, if they will, not only indicate their choice for Senator, but compel the Legislature to adopt it.

In the matter of ballot reform New Jersey has lagged behind most of the other States. Each party has had its official ballot, which, moreover, could be freely distributed by party workers. Now that is all to be changed. There is to be but one blanket ballot, with the names of all candidates for any office grouped under it—a party designation being printed after each name—and the giving out of an official ballot is made a misdemeanor. A provision is made, however, that sample ballots, like the official ballot in everything except the color of paper, are to be mailed to every registered voter. Such sample ballots are, of course, purely for information, and cannot under any circumstances be voted. If the Geran bill contained no other improvement than this, it would warrant the hard fight which Gov. Wilson and his supporters in the Legislature have made to pass it.

THE SMALL BANK ACCOUNT.

There has of late arisen a somewhat animated discussion, especially in families of moderate means who keep small bank accounts upon which to draw checks for household payments, over the intimation by their banks that the account cannot be continued unless the deposit is maintained at a stated amount. Sometimes the intimation comes in the form of refusal to open the account unless such a stipulated minimum can be assured. More often it takes the shape of a notice that the average deposit account is too small, and that unless it is maintained at or above a specified figure, a monthly charge will be imposed for carrying it. In some of these notifications which have come to our attention, the bank declared its purpose of charging a dollar a month for carrying deposit accounts which averaged below \$200. This, in the eyes of most people, would be equivalent to notice of withdrawal; for the proposal that a depositor shall pay 6 per cent. on his own deposit, for the privilege of having it carried, is financially preposterous.

Now such banks as may have taken this action had their reasons, and they did not do it merely because they dis-

like to have small depositors on their list. One hundred separate deposits of \$200 each produce a loanable fund of \$20,000, and no banking institution is indifferent to even so relatively small a sum for money market uses. The position of the banks as we understand it, however, is that the bookkeeping, the clearing and collection of checks, and the other incidental expenses of the office are as applicable to a small account as to a large one, and that where (as in most household accounts) the number of separate checks drawn on the account bears exceptionally high proportion to the average credit standing at the bank, the performing of these functions may cost more than the bank could possibly earn by lending out the deposit.

The case, thus stated, is unquestionably strong, but it omits some other considerations. If a bank had no deposit accounts except such as have been described, it certainly could not go on doing business. But if the question concerns a bank the bulk of whose accounts are commercially profitable, but which also carries some small deposits which are not remunerative, the matter wears a slightly different aspect. The late Frederic D. Tappen, one of the shrewdest judges of banking practice in his day, took ground very strongly in defence of accepting small deposits. There was then, as now, a disposition to figure up statistically whether such an account insured a profit to the bank or not, and if not, then to refuse to open it. Mr. Tappen criticised this conclusion on two grounds—one, that a small deposit account to-day might be a large one next year or some years later, and that the business of a bank was to look for customers; the other, that the use of a given bank's checks, in the payments even of a small depositor, was the best of all advertisements for that bank, and the cheapest also. The bank may make no profit from the account on which are drawn the checks to settle butchers' or bakers' bills, but it may, in the course of time, get the butcher or baker himself as a depositor.

We would not push this second argument too far; it would apply to a small bank in the residential district where it would hardly apply at all to a powerful Wall Street institution; but it is after all to these smaller banks that the matter at issue has most reference. Deposit banks doing business of

that nature have a peculiar field, which cannot be cultivated altogether on the ideas accepted elsewhere. We have in mind the case of a small bank in an up-town district of this city, and of the safety of a household account in which a certain business man was feeling doubt, because of the Robin incidents. His account, as it happened, varied considerably; on the average it was neither large nor small, as such things go. It had been low, however, during several months; which inspired the bank to notify him that unless he at once increased it, the charge of a dollar a month would be imposed. One may imagine what the depositor's face expressed when the notice reached him. It is possible that in that case the loss of this one account, which naturally occurred forthwith, was followed by loss of other and much more profitable balances.

There are obviously two sides to the question, neither of which can be confidently measured by extreme cases. There is undoubtedly a tendency among depositors, in these days of competition between trust companies, savings institutions, and deposit banks for obtaining accounts which will rest for a reasonable period undisturbed, to leave the bulk of a credit fund where it will draw some interest, and to cut down to the smallest convenient size the deposit account which gets no interest, and on which household checks are drawn. It is not unreasonable for a bank, under such conditions, to point out to a depositor that it must have at least a working margin in a given deposit, if it is to be expected to do the work involved in facilitating transaction of affairs by check. We imagine that most small depositors, thus appealed to, would see the justice of the position. But pressure in such directions may easily be applied unwisely and too far, and the bank rather than the depositor be the sufferer in the long run.

THE OLDEST LIVING RULER.

Ninety years of age, beloved of his people over whom he has ruled with kingly power since June 13, 1886, but only a prince—such is the Regent Luitpold of Bavaria. He wears no kingly crown, because King Otto still lives, without a vestige of reason, in a castle where little of royal dignity surrounds him, and because there is nothing in the

Bavarian Constitution to permit the deposition of the sovereign. But if he lacks the crown and title, it has long been Prince Luitpold's fortune to possess in rare degree the affection of his subjects. For the Regent embodies the rugged virtues of his people. They have thought of him as of one of themselves, though far above them, and a father to them all. They have known, through innumerable instances, of his kindness of heart and the generous simplicity of his nature. His love of hunting, persistent even in age, appeals to them; pictures of him in simple mountaineer's costume, with his gun in his hand, are in every village tavern, and they have heard stories without end of his unaffected comradeship not only with his own old friends, but even with his trusted servants and guides. They remember that he fought well for Bavaria, as inspector-general of its army, against the French, when no one believed that he would head the state in place of the handsome young sovereign who met his death in Starnberg Lake.

Prince Luitpold was sixty-five years old when he assumed the regency—an age at which a man's character seldom undergoes further changes. This explains, perhaps, why the simplicity of his ways was unaltered and why his policies were readily foreseen. The very geniality and kindness of his nature made him a man to seek no strife, but to endeavor to procure harmony by compromise and by unceasing efforts to reconcile the warring. The great desire of his life has been peace and quiet, and it must be admitted that in some respects Bavaria has suffered thereby. Even in one of the subordinate German monarchies, it is highly desirable that the ruler should have a fighting edge, since the forces of reaction are sleepless. So in Bavaria it is undeniable that, while the Prince Regent has taken but little interest in politics, the ultramontane leaders, on the contrary, lost no time in getting more and more control of the government. There was a genuine reason for calling Bavaria a "minister-republic" in the early eighties and for some time after the death of King Ludwig, for the government was actually then a moderate-liberal one. Luitpold's government has run on smoothly enough; there have been no great issues to face and no complicated problems of state to solve. Yet the Cen-

tre has gained so steadily as to be today the dominating power. It is undeniable, too, that the Regent has had no little suspicion of the Liberals. But with it all he has reigned as a Constitutional monarch, and strengthened the ties of friendship and of government with the Empire, so that even the Liberal press speaks well of him to-day, attributing his political shortcomings to age and lack of political skill rather than to any deliberate attempt to turn Bavaria over to the Clericals.

When it comes to what Luitpold has done as patron of the arts and crafts, as part moulder of the Munich of to-day, there are no dissenting opinions. The simplicity of his nature forbade his posing as a great art critic or connoisseur, but his interest in everything relating to the art world has been unceasing and unmarred by any particular fads or special crazes. All through his regency, the capital of Bavaria has grown richer and richer as an art centre, just as it has grown from one of the poorest of the European cities to one of the most prosperous and advanced. Munich's debt to him is great indeed, and it is interesting to note that his last large public gift was devoted to art and artists. It is also characteristic of him that, refusing any costly and elaborate celebration of his ninetieth birthday, he expressed only one wish—that when it came, on the 12th of last month, the public should, if it pleased, establish a charitable fund the income of which should be used for the common welfare and for philanthropic purposes.

He has truly shown, as has recently been pointed out by the Berlin press, that if the kings of the minor German states are excluded by the Empire from participation in the politics of the world, there is none the less a great field for most useful activity and leadership within their own domain. An honest, simple, straightforward, upright man in whom there is nothing that is bad or false; an economical administrator who keeps his affairs in a condition wholly beyond criticism—this is the verdict to-day even of the press politically opposed to Luitpold. And all over Germany people are quoting the speech he made but a day or two before his birthday, when he declared that among all the emotions crowding upon him his dominant feeling was for the German Empire, to the welfare of which

he had conscientiously devoted all of his thought and all his actions. Twenty years ago or so the Kaiser wrote in the Golden Book in the Munich town hall: *Suprema lex regis voluntas*. Some years later the Prince Regent wrote in the same book his guiding motto: *Salus publica suprema lex*. That he has truly lived up to this his popularity attests, and the Kaiser exaggerated but little when he described the oldest living sovereign on his birthday as "the incarnation and model of all the princely virtues."

THE QUESTION OF EDWIN DROOD.

LONDON, March 22.

Two strange little new books have enlisted the curiosity of a public not, indeed, numerically large, but intellectually respectable. The first is "About Edwin Drood" (Cambridge University Press), and is from the classic pen of Dr. Henry Jackson, regius professor of Greek in the University of Cambridge. Five or six years ago, when I published "The Puzzle of Dickens's Last Plot," another very distinguished Cambridge scholar reviewed it. He said that as to "The Mystery of Edwin Drood," most people on the Cam were indifferent, while many asked "Who was Edwin Drood?"

Many persons, but among them, I think, no lawyers, have attempted to discover the way in which Dickens meant to solve his mystery. The late Mr. Proctor, a scientific character, argued in favor of the survival of Edwin. Jasper was not to succeed in murdering his nephew, though he believed that he had succeeded, and Edwin was to "come up smiling" in the last round. Mr. Cumming Walters, on the other hand, argued that Jasper did murder his nephew, and that the mysterious amateur detective, Datchery, was a very young Eurasian girl, Helena Landless, disguised in a white wig, a blue surtout, and gray trousers. If this was Dickens's intention, he was *felix opportunitate mortis*.

Dr. Jackson began by doing what no other student had done, and what a scholar would naturally do. He consulted Dickens's manuscript of the story at the Victoria and Albert Museum: with the story are "plans." They are written on a broad sheet of paper; on the right hand are the chapter headings, much as they appear in the published book, with very brief notes of the contents. On the left hand are other notes, not numbered, and these, or some of them, appear to me, under correction, to be earlier than the notes beneath the chapter headings. In the notes on the right hand, Dickens put questions to himself, such as "continue the opium woman?" of the first chapter. He an-

swers "no," and twice, to these notes on the left hand, he adds the words "done already." Chapter xix is headed, on the right hand, "Divers Flights," which Forster (after Dickens's death and before the chapter was published) changed into "A Flight." The chapter is concerned solely with the flight of Rosa from Cloisterham to her guardian in London. On the left hand (the earlier, I think), Dickens had written "Disappearance of Drood. THE MYSTERY," and later had written "Done already"—namely, in chapter xvi. His original idea seems to have been to make Edwin and Rosa disappear almost simultaneously. Moreover, Dickens had originally meant to put chapter xviii—"A Settler in Cloisterham" (the appearance of the detective Datchery)—after the chapter which now follows it, in which Jasper proposes to and terrifies Rosa, and causes her flight to London.

Now, Dr. Jackson, believing that Miss Landless is Datchery, and seeing that she could not set out in her disguise till after chapter xxii, thinks that Dickens, had he lived, would have placed the chapter introducing Datchery after the present chapter xxii. In that case it would be chronologically possible for Datchery to be Helena. As matters stand, Dickens's reputation for taste and sense is safe: Helena cannot be Datchery. On the other hand, when Dickens wrote these "plans" (at whatever moment he did so), I think that he meant the murder to be successfully achieved. But, to judge from certain indications, he may have changed his mind, and I rather lean to the opinion that he *did* change his mind. He had committed himself to nothing, and the question of his final decision is insoluble; my own opinion is wavering.

Another curious problem is raised by a little book, "The Adventure" (Macmillan), which has already been rather widely read. In 1901 the narrators, two ladies whose real names and highly respectable positions in life are well known, paid a visit on an August day, after luncheon, to *le petit Trianon*. They knew nothing about the house except that Marie Antoinette used to amuse herself there in a rural way. They went through places that no longer exist, they met persons in the costume of 1789; one of them saw, close beside her, and the other did not see, a lady who resembled a portrait of Marie Antoinette; but some days passed before each told the other that the Trianon seemed to be "haunted." Months passed before they spoke to each other freely on the subject. In January, 1902, one of them went alone to the place, heard music which was not being played, and felt as if she were the centre of an invisible but audible crowd of courtiers.

It is an infinite pity that they did not, in August, 1901, and January, 1902, write down their stories, and leave them

in the hands of the Society for Psychological Research, while their memories were fresh, and while they were still ignorant of the local topography of the Trianon as it was in 1789, and of the costumes then worn by the gardeners and people about the court. In place of doing that, they have been making researches in old maps and old royal account books, and find that what they saw was what in 1789 they would have seen. This affords to the skeptic an opportunity of saying that their later acquired information has unconsciously colored their memories of their adventures. Their first statements, in each case, are followed by the date "November, 1901," but no date of the day of writing is given in either case. By the account of the lady who gives the first account, it did not occur to her that she had seen anything out of the common till several days after her visit to the Trianon. Even now, nothing is told us about the costume of one man, who, if the narrative is absolutely correct, was not a man of mortal mould, and must, if a shadow of 1789, have worn a dress that could not but excite attention and surprise. Yet he was, at the moment, accepted as a servant of the year 1901. One lady felt deeply depressed; the other felt as if she were walking in a kind of dream, "dissociated," as psychologists say. There was all the more room for errors of impression and of memory.

A book of very great interest to scholars is Alexander Shewan's "Lay of Dolon" (Macmillan). Mr. Shewan is a student of Homer, and of everything that has been written about Homer in Germany, America, France, Italy, England, and modern Greece. He takes as his text the tenth book of the "Iliad," the "Doloneia," at which every passing higher critic throws his stone, finding the language, versification, and general matter late and spurious. Mr. Shewan proves that the faults objected to—the vocabulary, metre, grammar, the use or non-use of the digamma, in fact, all the grounds of objection—are just as common in the supposed most ancient books of the "Iliad" as in the tenth book. He defends the archæology; he "rages like a fire," as Homer says, among the hosts of the adverse critics; showing up their logic, their statistics, their inconsistencies, with ruthless patience and very great erudition. Probably they will take no notice of a work so terribly damaging, an impeachment so humorously severe of the doctrines termed "scientific." Happily, in Germany and in Holland there are old scholars and young scholars who have shaken off, or have never yielded to, the glamour of Wolf and his successors.

ANDREW LANG.

SWISS NOTES.

NEUCHÂTEL, March 25.

At the coming international exposition in Rome the Swiss intend to display some interesting archaeological specimens to illustrate the former relations between Helvetia and the imperial capital. While it is impossible to transfer to Rome the valuable collections of Zürich, Avenches, Lyon, and other Swiss towns, the Swiss national museum has been charged by the government with the task of making the exhibition as complete as it can well be made. The idea of the directors of the museum is to show what the Roman Helvetia was. This is to be done, however, by means of photographs, plaster casts, and copies.

Previous to his departure for Constantinople, John Mott addressed large audiences in the principal Swiss towns. At Geneva the meetings were held under the auspices of the university faculty, and the hearers were chiefly students representing almost every civilized country. Mr. Mott spoke in English, but was aided by an interpreter. Among other things he said:

You have here many Russian students, and this puts you with Tokio, Paris, and Oxford. You have many Orientals, and you can reach by your influence, besides the Turkish and Slavic, the neo-Latin nations, and through them those of South America. At the last meeting Mr. Mott was introduced by Dr. Werner, the new professor of philosophy at Geneva, who spoke of Christianity as "the most important flight of idealism which has raised man to a higher plane."

Like Athens, Geneva is always eager to hear or to tell some new thing. Nevertheless, it gave a cold reception to Madame de Polozow, a Russian lady who came to address her compatriots in the university with regard to political conditions in their native land. After making a sort of apology for the faults of Russian administration, she attacked those Russians who go to foreign lands in order to engage in a revolutionary propaganda. The large Slavic population of Geneva is by no means in sympathy with such conservative sentiments, and a number of Russian students, both male and female, left the hall to show their disapproval of this *vox clamantis*.

A posthumous work of J.-J. Gourd, formerly professor of philosophy at Geneva, is entitled "Philosophie de la Religion." It has been published at Paris, with an introduction by Emile Boutroux. During his lifetime Gourd had considerable success as a teacher. It is doubtful whether this book will be much admired by students of either religion or philosophy. He divorces religion from science to such an extent that it is hard to see how there can be a philosophy of religion unless philosophy is unscientific.

Definite action has been taken at Berne to establish a "bureau of languages." A committee has been formed with M. Frey, a former federal councillor, as president, and Karl Schneeberger as secretary. Among the members is Professor Ostwald of Leipzig. A memoir has been addressed to the Swiss Federal Council requesting it to invite the governments of all civilized states to take part in a conference which shall study the question of adopting "a universal auxiliary language."

The arrest at Berlin of Mario Segantini, accused of selling paintings of his own to which he had forged his father's name, recalls a singular and almost tragic family history. Giovanni Segantini had two sons. He was himself a successful artist who lived for many years in the picturesque Grisons region in Switzerland. His eldest son gained a strange sort of fame by his eccentric and morbid art, and died by his own hand. The younger son, who has been arrested, is notorious both in Europe and in America. Among the mountains of his Swiss canton he qualified as Alpine guide. He is a good horseman and an accomplished boxer. In Central America he acquired fame as a yachtsman. He studied art at Milan and Vienna. At the Palais des Beaux Arts at Milan he exhibited a painting which was much admired and for which an offer was made; but for some reason he destroyed the picture, saying that it did not satisfy him. He then attempted to imitate the paintings of his clever father. When a connoisseur in Berlin declared that the young man had no talent, Mario made a wager that he would "rouler" the critic. He not only imitated the work of his father, but forged the latter's signature, writing the "G" so that it might have been mistaken for another initial.

Rossel's "Histoire de la littérature suisse," which has already been referred to in the *Nation*, has given rise to much idle debate. M. Rossel has a high reputation here as jurist and statesman. His book, although very complete and thorough, is an encyclopædia rather than an appreciative and critical review of the subject. Swiss men of letters are still discussing the question whether there is a Swiss literature independent of the literature of adjacent nations. There seems to be not much more than a war of words. Was the French Calvin a Swiss or a Frenchman? Was the Swiss Rousseau a Frenchman or a Swiss? When Eduard Zeller wrote at Zürich before going to Tübingen and Berlin, was he Swiss or German? Is Rod to be reckoned a Frenchman because he knew his Paris, or as a Swiss because he knew the Vaudois peasantry so well? A Tessinois who writes in Italian may be Swiss, but his work is a contribution to Italian literature. It is plainly the language of the author, and

not his race, which determines his place in literary history. Longfellow and Cooper were not North American Indians; and Booker Washington's admirable writings belong to English literature. But Rossel would insulate the literature of Switzerland and ask the writers of his country to put a barricade about themselves to protect them from foreign influences.

A very elaborate treatise on the science of education has just been published at Geneva. It is entitled, "Le Problème pédagogique, essai sur la position du problème et la recherche de ses solutions." It is an ambitious volume of nearly six hundred pages. The author is Dr. Jules Dubois, a graduate of the University of Lausanne, who has had years of experience in the Swiss high schools. His book gives a brief history of pedagogy, followed by an exposition of the author's educational theory. His discussion is divided as follows: the philosophical problem or question of the ideal, the technical problem or question of the programme, the scientific problem or question of the method, the pedagogic problem or question of the educator. He writes from the "voluntarist" point of view, as the following passage from his book will show:

In spite of all theories of integral education that may be elaborated, in spite of efforts made to give to instruction a more practical character, the official education of our European countries has become, and remains, overweighted with intellectualism. The idea that the more one knows the more social value one has, the idea that one cannot be a so-called cultivated man without going through a series of scholastic cycles, each of which represents a programme wider and more detailed than the preceding one, is not this to-day in many minds a pedagogic dogma which cannot be attacked without incurring the condemnation of many intelligent people?

To this it might be answered that no one can ever know too much, and that practice of whatever sort does not depend altogether on the teacher.

A. A.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

The price paid in the Ashburnham sale for the Gutenberg Bible was £4,000, not £2,000, as was stated in this column last week.

A list of the Incunabula included in the first Hoe sale arranged by countries and cities is printed, filling four pages, at the end of the catalogue. Among other important books from German presses, after the great Bible, are the "Epistolæ et tractatus" of St. Jerome, printed by Peter Schoeffer at Mainz in 1470, and on vellum; the "Catholicon" of Balbus de Janua, printed at Strassburg by the "R" printer, now identified as Adolph Rusch, son-in-law of Mentelin, to whose press these books used to be ascribed; the first edition of Richard de Bury's "Philobiblon," printed at Cologne in 1473 by a printer not certainly

identified; and the first edition of the "Imitatio Christi," printed by Günther Zainer at Augsburg about 1471. The long list of early books from Italian presses begins with the Lactantius of 1465, from the first press in Italy, that set up by Sweynheim and Pannartz at the Monastery of Subiaco, and the Apuleius of 1469, by the same printers, after their removal to Rome. Among twenty books from Venice presses before 1500 are: "De Civitate Dei," printed by John and Wendelin of Speier in 1470, and on vellum; the Pliny of 1472 from Jenson's press, and also on vellum; the first edition of Euclid (1482), printed by Ratdolt, and eight books from the press of Aldus Manutius, among them being his most famous book, the first edition of the "Hypnerotomachia Poliphili." The first edition of Homer, printed at Florence in 1488 by Lorenzo Rossini, and "De Claris Mulleribus," with many woodcuts, printed at Ferrara in 1497, are other notable Italian books. Among French incunabula we may note "La Mer de l'Histoire," Paris, 1488; and "La Rommant de la Rose," undated, but about 1497. Three books from three presses at Basle, Switzerland; two books from Gouda and Haarlem presses in Holland; Boccaccio's "De la Ruynne des Nobles Hommes et Femmes," printed at Bruges by Colard Mansion in 1476 and the first book from his press with a date, are Continental incunabula.

Besides "Le Morte d'Arthur," from Caxton's press already noted, this first portion of the library includes the first edition of the "Book of St. Albans" (1486), one of two perfect copies known; the first printed collection of English statutes, from the press of William Machlinia about 1482, and one or two other books printed in England before 1500. The superb copy of "The History of the Noble Helyas Knyght of the Swanne," from Wynkyn de Worde's press, is of later date (1512), but is one of the most valuable of early English printed books. Besides being the only known copy of the book, it is printed upon vellum, and is said to be the only book so printed by Wynken de Worde. From this copy the Grolier Club made a facsimile reprint in 1901.

An index to the books remarkable for their bindings has also been added to the Catalogue. This shows the peculiar richness of the Hoe library in Armorial bindings, especially those of French origin. In this part alone are described no less than four books from the library of Jean Grolier, including Heliodorus's "Æthiopica Historica" (Basle, 1552), preserved in a morocco case, under glass, and considered one of the finest known specimens of bindings done for this famous early book-collector. There are books from the libraries of Francis I, Henry II and Diane de Poitiers, Henry III, Louis XIII, Louis XIV, Charles X, Catherine de' Medici, Marie de' Medici, Marguerite de Valois, Anne of Austria, Madame de Pompadour, Count Hoym, Jacques Auguste de Thou, and many other notables. The list of English bindings is not so long, but royal copies, formerly in the libraries of Henry VIII, Queen Elizabeth, Charles I, Charles II, James II, Queen Anne, George I, and George III, are included.

There are also two "chained books" and several specimens of silver bindings of Dutch, German, English, and Russian workmanship.

Mr. Hoe never collected Americana sys-

tematically nor with much enthusiasm, although the library contains a large number of the rarest and most-sought-for books relating to America. From the N. Q. Pope library he selected a few first-class rarities, among them the uncut, large-paper copy of Smith's "History of New York" (1757), the New York Charter of 1719, John Norton's "Redeemed Captive" (1747), Mason's "Brief History of the Pequot War" (1736), and Simcoe's "Journal of the Operations of the Queen's Rangers" (1787), all of which are included in this first sale; but the larger portion of the rare Americana came to him at the piecemeal dispersal of the collection of the late Charles H. Kalbfleisch. From the latter source he procured the uncut copy of Denton's "Brief Description of the Province of New York" (1670), Winthrop's "Declaration of Former Passages and Proceedings betwixt the English and the Narrowgansets" (Cambridge: Stephen Daye, 1645), and Champlain's "Des Sauvages" (1603), the three most valuable American items (probably) in this first sale.

The Columbus letters are not included here, nor is the very rare Vespuccius "Lettera di Amerigo Vespucci delle isole nuovamente trouate in quattro suoi viaggi" (n. d. but about 1506), of which the Kalbfleisch-Hoe copy is the only one in this country. Three of the earlier printed accounts of Vespuccius's third voyage are included, one printed at Paris by Jehan Lambert, a second without name or place of printing, and a third (dated 1605) from the Strassburg press of Mathias Hupfuff. All three are exceedingly rare. Richard Eden's translation and enlargement of Peter Martyr's "Decades" (1555), the first collection of voyages printed in the English language, is always a notable book, though not of extreme rarity. The same may generally be said of Hakluyt's great collection of Voyages (1598-1600), but Mr. Hoe's copy contains the rare genuine map lacking in almost all copies.

Among pamphlets on early Virginia we may note the "Nova Britannia" (1609) and "The New Life of Virginia" (1612), both ascribed to Robert Johnson; Hamor's "Present Estate of Virginia" (1615), and Copland's "Virginia's God be Thanked" (1622). But few early New England tracts appear in this sale. Besides the Winthrop noted above, there are Wood's "New England's Prospect," the second edition (1635); Gorges's "America Painted to the Life" (1659), and Hubbard's "Narratives of the Troubles with the Indians in New England" (1677). There are several very rare New York pamphlets, both Dutch and English. Among the former are the first edition of Van der Donck's "Beschryvinge van Nieuw-Nederlandt" (1655), Vries's "Korte Historiende Journaels" (1655), and the anonymous but important "Breedten Raedt" (1649), and "Kort Verhael Van Nieuw Nederlandts" (1662). Wooley's "Two Years Journal in New York" (1701), and Colden's "History of the Five Indian Nations depending on the Province of New York" (1727) are, after the Denton, among the most valuable English books on the Colony. The first Directory of the City of New York (1786) is another very notable New York item. No copy has been sold at auction since 1886, when Morrell's copy (now in the library of Columbia University) brought \$180. A copy has since been sold privately for ten times this sum.

Correspondence

A NOTE ON BOTTOM THE WEAVER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Nick Bottom and his "crew of patchers, rude mechanicals," are acknowledged representatives of the English artisan of Shakespeare's time. Prof. C. W. Wallace has shown that Shakespeare resided with an artisan, Christopher Mountjoy, wig-maker. What is more natural than that Shakespeare should depict the artisan whom he best knew, and that he should make him chief of the mechanicals, disguised as "the weaver"? Bottom shows, for a weaver, strange familiarity with beards:

I will discharge it in either your straw-colour beard, your orange-tawny beard, your purple-in-grain beard, or your French crown colour beard, your perfect yellow. (I, ii, 95.)

Who, save a wig-maker, would rattle off glibly such trade terms as "orange-tawny," or "purple-in-grain"? They have the sound of a catalogue of Mountjoy's stock-in-trade. It is Bottom also who arranges that Snug's head shall appear through the lion's mask, and who instructs the others to "Get good strings to your beards." (IV, ii, 35.) Perhaps Shakespeare is ridiculing a tendency of Mountjoy to assume, among his fellow-artisans, a knowledge of stage-craft, because, forsooth, an actor and playwright resides in his house.

This assumption involves one difficulty: the commonly accepted date of this play is 1593-95, and there is no proof that Shakespeare lived with the Mountjoys before 1598. To admit the assumption we must have a later date for the play, or an earlier date for his residence at this place. The latter presents little difficulty, for the statement of Shakespeare which sets the date 1598 refers to his acquaintance with both Mountjoy and the apprentice Bellott, who came to Mountjoy in 1598. Nothing is said, naturally, of any earlier acquaintance between Shakespeare and Mountjoy; therefore it is certainly as fair to assume an earlier acquaintance as to deny it. Any identification of Bottom as Mountjoy would tend to establish Shakespeare's residence with Mountjoy before 1598.

T. G. WRIGHT.

Yale University, March 25.

"LE FAKIR."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There lies on my table, as I write, an eighteenth century French pamphlet, gray with age, and still in its original cover of light brown paper. It is not of the greatest importance, but it has relations to an extraordinary character and is in itself a document of some interest in the history of comparative literature. The title page reads:

Le Fakir, conte . . . Tantme animis celestibus ira! Virg. Æneid, Lib. I, vers. 15. Prix Douze sols. [Monogram] A Constantinople, de l'Imprimerie du Muphti. M.DCC.LXXX. 8vo, pp. 24.

On the half-title of my copy is written "De la Part de L'Éditeur," followed by an elaborate letter or monogram of fantastic interlacings intended to represent the initials—or some of them—of Alexandre Balthazar Laurent Grimod de la Reynière. In the

"advertisement" we are told that the author was a young officer in the army, and that it was published without his knowledge, a MS. copy having been communicated by a friend to a Parisian man of letters. The "Editeur" also announces his intention of issuing three other works, one of which is the "Réflexions sur le Plaisir, par un Célibataire," i. e., by Grimod de la Reynière.

The story has nothing in common with Voltaire's well-known conte except the title. The theme is thus expressed in the opening verses:

Coupable orgueil, source de tous nos maux,
Toi qui perdis notre commune mère,
Que de forfaits, que de crimes nouveaux
Tu fais encore éclore sur la terre!

The Fakir, who has lived in the desert for more than a generation and has become renowned for sanctity and austerities is tempted by the devil to incontinence, kills the victim of his lust in order to conceal his first crime, and when detected agrees to worship the devil if he will rescue him from death. The devil agrees, but the Fakir when he has thus blasphemed his own religion, is left to the executioner. The writer cites as his source "un Auteur Tartare."

This story of the Santon Barsisa appears earlier in English as No. 148 of the *Guardian*, probably written by Sir Richard Steele. He professes to have found it in the "Turkish Tales," by which Sir William Ouseley thinks is meant an English translation from the collection by Petis de la Croix. The story can be traced back to Saadi and Zacaria Cazvini. (See Trans. Royal Society of Literature, I, Pt. II, pp. 14 and 21.) The tale of the hermit deceived by the devil was known in Europe in the Middle Ages, and four variants of it are cited by Legrand in his account of the mediæval fabliaux. It has also been suggested that "Monk" Lewis found in it the idea of his once famous romance.

"Le Fakir" has been attributed to Etienne François de Lantier, but Gaston de Flotte in the biography prefixed to the "Œuvres Complètes" (Paris, 1837, p. v.) denies that he was the author. De Flotte avows his ignorance of the real authorship. Lantier wrote his own epitaph:

Dans cette tombe protectrice
Repose un mortel peu connu:
Il vécut libre, il abhorrait le vice,
Il aimait la vertu.

There is no doubt that Grimod de la Reynière was the "publisher" of this story, and whether that elastic term might not imply authorship also may be a matter of doubt. The grotesque character of Alexandre Balthazar Laurent Grimod de la Reynière is well known to the loiterers in the byways of French literature. The great apostle of cookery was the grandson of a *fermier-général*, devoted to the "pleasures of the table," who died with a serviette round his neck, choked by that cruel dish, a pâté de foie gras. His father was rich, his mother was a sister of Malesherbes, and a niece of a bishop of Orleans not famous for sanctity. Grimod, their only son, born in 1758, was malformed from birth, as his arms terminated in fin-like appendages. Hands made like that of Goetz von Berlichingen—of iron but covered with gloves of white skin supplied the place of the missing members. He was otherwise good-looking, and was well-educated, but too fond of making fun of his mother's

aristocratic airs and pretensions, and of aristocrats generally. He did not fall in with the plans of his parents for his advancement in life, and on their side they successfully opposed what might have been a happy marriage. The unhappy lover became a happy gourmand, and his dinners were soon the talk of Paris alike for their splendor and for the eccentricities of the host. His gallantries, his duels, his suppers in which coffins and funeral ceremonies mingled with the costly wines and elaborate dishes, were the theme of court and city alike. When the elder Grimod stopped the supplies, the son turned coachman, and charged for carrying passengers in the family carriage! Later he turned merchant, if that is the right word, and went from fair to fair with a bazaar. He continued his literary efforts, and while the Revolution was uprooting all the old social landmarks he used the influence which his former opposition to the aristocrats had given him, on behalf of his parent. He did not approve of the Revolution, and had a special grievance against it, for he declared that in all its disastrous years not one fine turbot had reached the market! In 1803 he began the work that has made him famous, the *Almanach des Gourmands*. It continued until 1811, and has given Grimod de la Reynière his special niche in the French Panthéon. His later years were passed at his chateau de Villers-sur-Orge, where his guests were often subjected to strange experiences, rendered possible by secret passages and machines which, however useful in a theatre, are, happily, not usual in a home. In his pleasant retreat in the Department of Seine-et-Oise death made his call upon Grimod de la Reynière and guided him to a place where there is neither feasting nor the giving of feasts—after the fashion of Grimod de la Reynière.

WILLIAM E. A. AXON.

Manchester, England, March 20.

AN INSTANCE OF WORD-MAKING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The other day a little girl came up on my porch to play with the baby. By some accident, in tossing down his mother-of-pearl tooth-ring, he contrived to lodge it on one of her outstretched fingers. Then she called out, "See, he has hung the ring on my finger." Then this child of eight put out her two first fingers and said, "Here are my hangers." It struck me as a particularly vivid instance of word-making, of the fashioning of a momentaneous word to suit a passing need. If the word-maker had been a grown person I should have thought no more of it, but for a child to call a finger a hanger, to suit a single occasion, indicated the extent to which language works in us.

The incident set me to thinking about our word for *hand* which the etymological lexica of importance treat with great caution. The strongest statement that they venture is to the effect that some connect *hand* with the Gothic verb *hinthan*, "to seize." This makes *hand* mean "the seizer, grasper." On the—shall I call it—mechanical side, there is no obstacle to this conclusion. Every single sound in the word *hand* is legitimately accounted for by the derivation from the

root of the Gothic verb in question. Why, then, do the lexica shrink from this etymology?

Truly, the etymologists are a curious folk, if I may be permitted, who am an etymologist *ex-professo*, to criticise my own kind, without becoming liable to a charge of arrogance. They are like those other curious ones that strained at a gnat, but swallowed camels.

To begin with, when Gothic *handus* is cited alongside of English *hand*, the etymologists and the readers of dictionaries think that they are giving or learning the etymology of *hand*, while the only conclusion the comparison warrants is as to the great age of the word *hand*; it can be traced to the pre-Germanic period—and no further. The comparison is valuable for word-history, but the only tenable suggestion that seeks to show us the origin of the word is that it is a derivative meaning "the seizer," and cognate with the root of Gothic *hinthan*.

Now, "seizer" is, as such matters go, an absolutely adequate description of the hand, as the momentaneous description of a *finger* as a *hanger* was not adequately descriptive of the finger. So far from stumbling, then, over the definition (which means the etymology) of *hand* as the "seizer," I shall seek to justify it. In Vienna they have the formal word *hand*, identical as it happens with our own, but they say on the streets *Greifer!* "little seizer," in place of *hand*. The adequacy of this affectionate diminutive of the streets, in point of descriptiveness, is reflected in the formal language of science, for, in noting the distinctions between man and his ape progenitor, it becomes necessary to say that both possess a *Greif-hand*, but that in man the *Greif-fusus* has almost totally disappeared. Science has developed the word *Greif-hand* explicitly to describe the function of the hand. But science is not more likely to have given an accurate functional description than our pre-Germanic ancestors. And my little girl, with her "hangers," was, for the nonce and for her need, as accurate as either. Her description, too, however inadequate, was as inclusive as a large portion of the descriptions that have become crystallized into names. A name is often most partially descriptive, witness the *tie* (on my neck), the *ties* (on my feet, on the roadbed of a railway, about a cotton bale).

EDWIN W. FAY.

Austin, Tex., March 20.

AN OLD SONG.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I wish, if possible, to recover the words of a song which I read in my youth, and parts of which still haunt my memory. The writer's name I never knew. It is a beautiful specimen of a lost type, as will be seen from one stanza, which I subjoin:

In their caverned, cool recesses
Songs for thee the fountains frame;
Whate'er the wave caresses
Lips thy name.
Greener verdure, brighter blossom,
Whate'er thy footsteps stray
O'er the earth's enamoured bosom,
Live alway.

WM. HAND BROWNE.

Rider P. O., Md., March 27.

Literature

STUDIES OF TRANSPORTATION.

Railroad Traffic and Rates. By Emory R. Johnson and Grover G. Huebner. 2 volumes. New York: D. Appleton & Co. \$5 net.

Our Home Railways. How They Began and How They Are Worked. By W. J. Gordon. 2 volumes. New York: Frederick Warne & Co. \$4.50 net.

The two attractive volumes by Professor Johnson and Dr. Huebner have the active railway man primarily in mind. They are evidently designed to give to the ordinary clerk or even subordinate official of a great railway system, who knows little or nothing beyond his appointed task of the industry that he serves, a broader knowledge of railway operations as a whole. The first volume is devoted to the freight service, the second to passengers, mail, and express. The method of treatment is to describe the organization and management of each kind of service, and the documents used, and to follow this with an account of classifications and rate-making. Experts in the railway field have read and criticised the various chapters, and in consequence the material presented may be accepted as authoritative. The matter is well arranged and set forth with great clearness. Being abundantly illustrated with facsimiles of forms and documents, the books should serve as a valuable guide, so far as they go, to traffic operations.

It is a question, however, whether they contain what the young railway man wants, or at any rate what he ought to have. With the exception of the sections on rate-making, which are largely taken from the work of McPherson, Ripley, and others—for which generous acknowledgment is made—the chapters are almost wholly descriptive. They are merely surface accounts of the methods employed and the forms used, with scarcely a reference to underlying problems; this despite the fact that almost every item printed in a railway blank form is the outcome of a struggle—the solution of some problem, however unimportant, in railway operation. Take for example the subject of the uniform bill of lading. A careful description is given of its provisions, a facsimile is presented, but there is no reference to the long controversy between shippers and carriers of which this document is the result; it can be of little value to a railway clerk to be told that the original of an "order bill of lading" is printed on yellow and the shipping order on blue paper—bits of information which he can pick up by himself after a few days of office practice.

A second criticism relates to the sources of information from which the

illustrative matter is drawn. In view of the fact that railways still vary so widely in their methods, far too many references are made to the procedure of one particular railway corporation. It was doubtless more convenient for the authors, but it does not give one confidence that the railway practice of the country has been studied and summarized.

Mr. Gordon's two volumes embody the history and description of the important railway systems of England and Scotland. The illustrations with which the books are generously provided, and which include every form of construction and equipment, will prove of more interest to American readers than the text, for the descriptive matter consists largely of technical and mechanical details which can have only local interest. There is only an occasional reference to traffic and rates, and none at all to problems of regulation. It can in no way supersede Acworth's delightful "Railways of England," written in 1889. Here and there appears an item of interest to Americans. We learn for example that the first Pullmans were introduced into England in 1874 and that their smooth running was responsible for the present style of long carriage with four-wheeled bogies. That the United States is not the only country of speed and hustle is shown by the fact that the Great Northern runs a train without stop from Paddington to Plymouth, a distance of 225½ miles, in 247 minutes, and that one of the "tubes" is operating trains during the rush hours at intervals of eighty seconds.

A characteristic difference between freight service here and there is revealed by the following description:

In the old days of leisurely delivery, the orders were large in order that a stock might be kept by the dealers. Nowadays, the railways have so improved their services that goods collected at night are delivered next morning, with almost the certainty of letters. The result is that whereas the dealer used to order in tons, he is now contented with hundredweights, and the packages that have to be handled and booked are twenty times as many. The men behind the scenes in railway work have to be more numerous every year; and the net profit suffers. It is the penalty of efficiency.

Transportation in Europe. By Logan G. McPherson. New York: Henry Holt & Co. \$1.50 net.

We have had much experience with the book on American conditions embodying the impressions of the European traveller after a brief sojourn with us. Its frequent misinterpretations, its hasty generalizations, its omniscience, arouse suspicion as to its accuracy and resentment as to its conclusions. It was pardonable, therefore, if we approached with no very eager expecta-

tions a book treating of transportation in all the leading countries of Europe, by one who had devoted but six months to study on the ground. The book proves, however, to have genuine merit; it is the outcome of careful and thorough investigation, its conclusions are thoughtful and considerate, and in the main seem sound, its tone is judicial, giving almost no evidence of bias; in a word, it presents a most satisfactory picture of existing transportation conditions in Europe. The author was peculiarly well fitted by training and circumstance to gain every advantage from his stay abroad. After a long practical experience in the industry, and more recently a three-year study of the rate situation in the United States, he was attached as expert to the National Waterways Commission, and had every facility granted him for procuring information.

In the opening chapters a concise history is given of highways, waterways, and railways, in which the situation in each country is brought up to date. In the discussion of present-day relations between the railways and the government clearness is sometimes sacrificed to brevity, so that while the reader gains a good idea of the historical development, he is left with a somewhat indistinct impression of existing conditions. Passenger traffic, freight traffic, government control, and the comparative usefulness of water and railway transportation are discussed in separate chapters. One gathers the general impression that European railways charge higher rates, and that their efficiency is in most respects inferior to that of the railways of the United States. This the author would attribute in part to remediable conditions of operation, in part to the fundamental and perhaps unalterable conditions under which the business is done, in part directly to government management and operation. Yet he grasps fully the difficulties of accurate comparison and is generous in his allowance for differing conditions. For example, in the discussion of German freight rates, after remarking that "freight classifications in Germany are not so pifant as those in the United States," and that "German officials admit that on the whole their freight rates are higher," he says, "In a country where the greatest continuous rail distance is less than 1,000 miles . . . the German system of rates fairly meets the needs of existing traffic."

In view of the recent nationalization of Swiss railways it is of interest to note that the Swiss experience coincides with that of other democratic countries that have made similar experiments. The quality of administration has been impaired by reductions in salaries in the higher grades of the service; rates have been lowered and at the same time the wages of the rank

and file increased, with the inevitable result of a deficit in operation. That water transportation flourishes in all European countries in marked contrast to the situation here, is explained by the fact that the various governments do not permit railway rates to be fixed so low as to endanger water traffic.

One of the most interesting chapters in the book is that on International Rail Traffic, in which is described the effort thus far made toward the removal of restrictions and the development of traffic across national boundaries. In this form of traffic lies the possibility of the application of American methods. A final chapter is given to transportation in England, concerning which the author concludes that the conditions are so different that the problems of interior transportation in England and in the United States are virtually without parallel.

CURRENT FICTION.

Klaus Hinrich Baas. By Gustav Frensen. Authorized translation from the German by Esther Everett Lape and Elizabeth Fisher Read. New York: The Macmillan Co.

Upon the whole the life of Klaus Hinrich Baas from his birth in the hut of impoverished Holstein peasants to his setting sail for China as head of a large commercial concern in Hamburg varies little from that of a boy born under similar circumstances in any other country and rising from obscurity and poverty to prominence and wealth. But in his manner of working up and in the details of his life the story differs widely from that of a boy of Anglo-Saxon stock. In his essential traits this hero bears an unmistakable family resemblance to Jörn Uhl. But his transplanting from the native acres of his fathers to the cold and alien pavement of the city gives the author opportunity to strike some new notes. He portrays city dwellers of varied social caste and moral calibre, presents a picture of the life within the walls of ancient wholesale houses engaged in foreign trade, and gives us a glimpse of the homes of the merchant aristocracy which in the Hanse towns formed a caste of truly patrician ideals and habits. But as the younger generation of these merchant princes departs from the staid and careful business policies of its forefathers and from their comparatively simple standards of living, the traits transmitted through many generations begin to be held less sacred and the character of the old families is undergoing a change. When the author marries Klaus Hinrich Baas to Sanna Eechen one cannot help feeling that by this infusion of the strong, thick peasant blood he hopes to save a race that has nearly exhausted its vitality. Thus Frensen can indulge in touching problems dear to his heart; but to a much

greater degree than in "Jörn Uhl" and "Hilligenlei," he controls the temptation to preach. Re-reading the book in English confirms the impression which one had in reading the original, that in the delineation of his characters Frensen has in this work reached his high-water mark. Antje Baas, the hero's mother, who feels so keenly the inherent weakness of the Baas character that she sets out with dogged determination to curb it in her children, is a figure of strong outline, and Kalli Dau, the product of Hamburg's slums, is a remarkably forcible creation.

The translators have bravely struggled with the very difficult task of rendering into English the language of Frensen, charged with provincialisms where the scene is the country, with the vernacular of the wharves and the gutter where it is Hamburg, yet have not wholly succeeded. The translation contains passages which fail to convey the meaning of the original. Thus when Kalli Dau says of his family "Mit meiner Familie ist nichts los," he does not mean "There's nothing the matter with my family" (p. 28), but "My family is good for nothing." When he says that his stepfather "sitzt im Buddel," he means far more than that he is "a regular bum"; he alludes to his being locked up. His forceful characterization of his mother, who instead of cooking proper meals goes "Schuldern und Schandiren," is also very poorly rendered by "Cheating and nastiness are what she lives on" (p. 47), instead of "She slouches and loafs about the street."

Robert Kimberly. By Frank H. Spearman. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

That story-writing should now have become so popular a trade with us entails certain disadvantages and even perils. A citizen may begin the business quite honestly and innocently, aiming to turn out a maximum of marketable stories, short or long, by a given date, as, in another "line," he would be turning out shoes or cotton cloth. He has no illusions about his work: it is an output, a commodity, and that is all. If he can sell it, it is worth making. He does not worry about the quarter in which his market may be found. He is not a pearl-merchant—he frankly grows turnips for his swine—the fair thing from the swinish point of view.

But the tale-wright is seldom permitted to remain in this simple and virtuous state. His neighbors take to calling him "Author Jones"; his publisher asserts that his fiction is art of a high order; and he is lost. He ceases the growing of honest turnips, and begins the manufacture of sham pearls. His purpose is an honest one, but the product is a thing of slight value.

No careful reader of current American fiction—let us say of the current

novel—would doubt that it "means business" in the highest as well as the lowest sense that may be attached to the phrase. Hundreds of writers are trying their best to produce work which shall be acceptable to the gods (nameless as yet) of current art, as well as the gods of the marketplace. The result is a glut of self-made novelists. To this number the author of "Robert Kimberly" belongs. He has won success as a writer of short stories, and now aspires to work upon the larger scale. There are some real types in this book, if not living persons. The promise of the opening chapters—the promise of a mere tale of domestic scandal in the haunts of the multi-millionaire—is agreeably falsified. The plane of action shifts by degrees from ambition and intrigue to religious emotion. The conclusion ought to be powerful; but it is marred by spectacular accessories. This is a study toward a novel, rather than a novel. The writer has put all his muscle into the effort; but the creaking of bootstraps is distinctly audible.

Keeping up with Lizzie. By Irving Bacheller. New York: Harper & Bros.

Mr. Bacheller's fancy deals habitually with a blend of rustic humor and unabashed melodrama—that formula of "The Old Homestead," "Shore Acres," and like dramas, which so doth take our Lizas and our Jims. The central figure in his present scene is a country lawyer, one of those professionally dry and droll rustic philosophers who can trace their American ancestry much farther back than a David Harum or a Hosea Biglow. This one is a man of cultivation who loves the vernacular, so that his wit has a double edge. He is, one sees at first glance, the good genius of his community, has his finger in every pie, for the good of the pie. Particularly in need of his care are two young should-be lovers. Lizzie is the daughter of a prosperous grocer who in an unlucky moment begins to aspire for his child. Fine clothing, a fashionable school, and association with the children of the rich bring new and increasing burdens on the luckless Mr. Henshaw. Lizzie becomes a symbol of the American spirit. As Soc. Potter, the lawyer-oracle, puts it, "The odor of gasoline is in the path of the eagle. Our thoughts are between earth and heaven; our prices have followed our aspirations in the upward flight." The grocer charges more because he has to make more—taxes the community for the luxuries of his offspring. And presently the whole community is following in her steps—"keeping up with Lizzie" to the best of its ability. Mortgages and motors become equally common among the natives: fashion invades households of the humblest villagers. The idea is sufficiently humorous. It is, of course, the function of Lawyer Potter to save

the situation by reforming Lizzie and presenting her to her deserving but out-distanced adorer. Nothing remains for the community but to keep up with Lizzie by reforming itself. An obvious and rather perfunctory touch of sentiment is added in a marriage arrangement for the Hon. Socrates Potter, who is unmistakably leading man in this rural comedy.

The Imprudence of Prue. By Sophie Fisher. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Co.

In the days of Queen Anne, it appears, a wife's debts were buried in her husband's coffin. It occurs to a feather-brained fair one of the court, Lady Prudence Brooke, to take advantage of this legal provision and cheat the creditors who threaten her with "the Fleet" by marrying on a Friday a highwayman condemned to die on Monday. The highwayman, however, exerts himself to remain alive—a betrayal of trust which neither the lady nor the reader could possibly have condoned, had he not been immediately converted from the notorious outlaw Robin Freemantle into Robert Gregory de Cliffe, Jacobite agent and political exile. Even so, it requires a whole series of precarious interviews interspersed with final partings and mutual rescues, before the scrupulous gentleman feels himself entitled to carry his wife off to France and the court of King James.

The author is fairly conversant with the period in which she deals—its laws, literature, manners, court intrigues, and fashions in attire. The latest witticisms of Mr. Prior and Mr. Pope are quoted; we see something of a masked ball at Marlborough House, hear some little talk of "Mrs. Freeman and her poor, faithful Mrs. Morley" from the tyrannical mistress of the robes; and disguises are freely improvised out of periwigs, plumed hats, and chairmen's liveries. In her treatment of human nature she is rather less versatile; outside of the rôles assigned them, the characters would be scarcely more distinguishable than uncostumed lay figures.

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

The Beginnings of the American Revolution. Based on Contemporary Letters, Diaries, and other Documents. By Ellen Chase. 3 volumes. New York: The Baker & Taylor Co. \$7.50 net.

We doubt if the reader will be prepared for the limited interpretation which Miss Chase has put upon her subject or for the curiously unformed and inartistic way in which she has assembled much of her evidence. In scope her field is Boston and vicinity; in form she has published a kind of glorified scrap-book. All that concerns other aspects of her subject than New

England is a negligible quantity, as far as historical value is concerned. Her point of view is always that of Massachusetts, "the wronged province," and her way of approach is always through that which is personal and anecdotal. With the larger problems, the real causes and beginnings of the Revolution, she has nothing to do, and with the actual operation of the British constitutional and administrative systems she has no familiarity. She can speak of a "Secretary of the Treasury" and a "Secretary of War" in England as unconsciously as she can spell Haldimand "Haldiman," Carleton "Carlton," Germain "Germaine," or turn to Thackeray for her knowledge of the Georges or to the tea-tax debates in Parliament for the last word on British policy.

Two volumes are devoted to the events of a single year, 1774-1775, and a volume and a quarter to the incidents and issues of a single day, April 19, 1775. Fifty pages are given over to the Boston Tea Party and twelve lines to the burning of the Peggy Stewart in Maryland. A similar perversion of the historic sense appears in the secondary authorities upon which Miss Chase has depended for her information and from which she quotes with delightful ease and abandon. She can refer to books for children, such as those of Tappan, Tomlinson, Blaisdell, and Channing with the same assurance as to Force's "American Archives," and she seems to know no other general histories than those of Gordon, Morse, Botta, Spencer, Goodrich, and Murray, with the single exception of Bryant and Gay's popular work; while Lossing's "Our Country" and Niles's "Principles and Acts of the Revolution" are virtually eviscerated. Magazine articles, newspaper communications, and public orations are used without doubt or criticism. On the other hand, Miss Chase has brought together a notable collection of primary authorities both in print and manuscript. In one part or another of her volumes will be found the greater part of Andrews' "Letters," Rowe's "Diary," Hutchinson's "Diary," and the contemporary writings of Newell, Stiles, Quincy, Tudor, Bernard, and others. Many extracts are taken from newspapers of the day, from unprinted archives, and town records.

The valuable portions of Miss Chase's volumes are those that present, with somewhat the fidelity of a moving picture, the leading incidents of Boston's history from 1765 to 1775. She has made a real contribution to our knowledge of such events as the burning of Hutchinson's house, the conflicts with the soldiers and the Boston Massacre, the Boston Tea Party, and particularly the march to Lexington and Concord, the retreat of the British troops, and the rousing of the countryside. She has gathered what we must confidently be-

lieve is a complete array of evidence bearing on these events; drawing together scores of scattered stories which lingered on in town and county records and in family tradition. These details are arranged in chronological and topical order and in a few of the chapters, notably those on the Massacre and the Tea Party, rise to a high level of description.

All things considered, Miss Chase is impartial, although her sympathies are unmistakably patriotic. Of the Massacre, she can say that "the provocation came about equally from either side," and of the conduct of the soldiery in general, she is inclined to think that the troops showed much patience. She is sparing of comments and expressions of opinion, preferring to let the evidence tell its own story. The very minuteness of her narration dissipates the mists of hero-worship, and we see the insurgent colonials, brave men, indeed, but possessed of the weaknesses to which all flesh and blood is heir.

Studies in Chinese Religion. By E. H. Parker, professor of Chinese at the Victoria University of Manchester. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$3 net.

Professor Parker writes in his preface: "The contents of this book may be described, in the main, as the original studies from which a summary was made and a popular work published in 1905, called 'China and Religion.'" That work was not cumbered with "too many references, proper names, and 'intensive' matter generally," and the present volume supplies the lack, giving "vouchers for previous statements of fact made in general terms for popular consumption." But our expectation of a scientific treatise is disappointed. It is true that there is no lack of "references," etc., but the data for the verification of statements are almost wholly wanting, the mass of Chinese names in the text by no means supplying the want. Our belief in the argument rests as before on our general confidence in the author, a confidence which, on the whole, is well deserved. For the rest, there is an absence of scientific method, and the book has been thrown together in haphazard fashion, from the author's collection of studies, and without re-editing. The amount of repetition is extraordinary and annoying; indeed, one does not understand how the proof-reader can have failed to call the author's attention to this persistent defect. Besides, some of the chapters were manifestly prepared for "popular consumption" and are put in to fill out the required number of pages. How else shall we account for a statement like the following?—

"At the Imperial capital Confucius had interviews with the keeper of the Imperial archives, a morose, hermit-philosopher named Lao-tsz, who founded a rival doc-

trine or system of mystics called Taoism, but, as Confucius himself said that he was unable to comprehend those misty teachings, and the very existence of this Taoist philosopher is held by some to be a matter of conjecture, we need not dwell further upon the incident.

This, on p. 204, and more than one hundred of the preceding pages are devoted to Lao-tsz (or better Laocius, as Mr. Parker often writes it, after the Latinized forms, Confucius, Mencius), with an analysis of these "misty teachings," a determined effort to prove the actual existence of the "morose, hermit-philosopher," and an admirable translation of the Tao-teh, the classic which Parker maintains is undoubtedly his production. Finally, in way of adverse criticism, our author is a very matter-of-fact person, with little interest in any form of religion and no pretence of insight into things metaphysical or mystical.

Nevertheless, the book has its value. Nowhere else can one who has no opportunity to study the original Chinese authorities find so good a statement of the points at issue in the controversy over Taoism and its founder, or so impartial and complete a summary of all which has been written upon it by European scholars, or so clear and comprehensible a translation of the Tao-teh. Incidentally the reader gets an excellent view of the sources on which Chinese history rests, with the persuasion confirmed that at least a thousand years of the time put down as historic in the standard works on China is legendary.

International Arbitral Law and Procedure. By Jackson H. Ralston. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$2.

Within the last one hundred years a body of law and procedure has grown up relating to the functions and operations of international arbitrations. The precedents creating it are scattered in digests in the reports of arbitrations, many of which have never been fully reported, and some of which have been printed in such limited numbers that they are virtually inaccessible.

The author has collected these precedents under appropriate headings and has included the views of arbitrators upon questions arising under the law of nations. The principle of *stare decisis* is not recognized by international commissions, and as to nearly every point of substantive law there is an irreconcilable conflict. This will continue as long as the various nations make use of the faculty given them by Article 42 of the Hague Peace Conference of 1907 to institute special tribunals instead of submitting the dispute to the Permanent Court of Arbitration.

The decisions of the commissions can therefore not be regarded as constituting a body of law, yet they are interesting because they embody the

views of some of the greatest authorities on international law, not only on the subjects which are treated at length by text-book writers, but also on points of which no full discussion can elsewhere be found. An instance of this occurs in the disputes growing out of the so-called Calvo clause in concessions. This Calvo doctrine, which takes its name from the well-known South American statesman, absolutely condemns diplomatic as well as armed intervention as legitimate methods of enforcing any or all private claims of a purely pecuniary nature, at least such as are based upon contract or are the result of civil war, insurrection, or mob violence. The great Powers have generally refused to accept this theory in their dealings with South American states. The attempt has been made to incorporate this doctrine in the concession itself by providing that questions arising from the contract shall be decided by the law of the country granting the concession and by its tribunals, and shall not be considered as a motive for international arbitration. It has been held in some cases that such a clause prevented the consideration of the claims by an international commission. The better opinion, however, which is sustained by numerous decisions, seems to be that a subject cannot contract away the right of the sovereign to enter into agreements to submit all claims to arbitration. It is well said by the author that "in this branch of legal science, as has often been the case in other branches, tribunals in their conclusions are in advance of the speculations of the scholars."

Land Problems and National Welfare. By Christopher Turnor. New York: John Lane Co. \$2.50.

A more trenchant indictment of the English land system than this has not been penned by any Radical or Socialist reformer. Mr. Turnor is an aristocrat—a member of an old landed family closely allied with the peerage. He is also a Conservative, and he imagines himself an Anti-Socialist. Yet he approves the Fabian Society, all but its Socialist label. He places Mr. and Mrs. Sidney Webb on a high level as thinkers and administrators, and gives high praise to the minority report of the Poor Law Commission, which was largely their joint work. He wishes to see an end of great estates and a fairer division of the land among small holders—either as owners or tenants, with some leaning to tenancy rather than to ownership so long as the tenure is secure—and he is emphatic in his condemnation of the present waste of land and destruction of crops through the devotion of its owners to sport. Mr. Turnor is also opposed to the holding of land in large farms. "In the interest of the agricul-

tural industry as a whole," he writes, "no land-owner should own more than 20,000 acres (of average agricultural land) at the outside, and on the other hand it would be well if it were impossible for a tenant to hold more than 1,000 acres." The absentee farmer Mr. Turnor regards as an injury to agriculture. A man can get the best possible returns from a farm of 500 acres, but if he adds another farm of 500 acres, and puts in a foreman, he has not the same incentive to do his best by it. He may make a net profit of £100 a year by the second farm, and this may be all that he cares to do; but it is not putting the land to its fullest use, as every acre of land in England should be put. What is needed for England is intensive culture, and hundreds of thousands of small farmers, well educated and trained in agricultural colleges and with an active Agricultural Department behind them ready to give aid and instruction. These small farmers should enjoy security of tenure and freedom from the vexatious restrictions concerning cropping and the breaking up of grass land which so many land-owners impose upon their tenants.

It is the land-owners, however, rather than the farmers, who come in for the most severe criticism at the hands of Mr. Turnor. If a land-owner expects a return from the capital locked up in land, at all commensurate with the return on capital invested in manufacturing or commerce, he must regard land-owning as a business. Love of sport, indifference to the real welfare of the country, and inefficient and incapable management of their too huge estates, are in Mr. Turnor's opinion the chief reasons for the present unpopularity of English land-owners. "The great point to keep in mind," he writes, "is that about 80 per cent. of the population has little or no sympathy with the land-owner; in fact, any feeling there is may be looked upon rather as one of hostility." Intelligent artisans, he adds, are, so far as his experience goes, "all very much against the present system of landlordism, and feel it wrong that so much of the land of England should be in the hands of so few men."

These landlords, on whom so much of the welfare of England depends, do not exceed five thousand. The number includes all who have above one thousand acres each: together, they own just about one-half of Great Britain. Instead of entering upon their estates with thorough preparation for a most important and onerous life-work, most land-owners entrust their possessions to a firm of non-resident agents, or, worse still, to a firm of solicitors entirely untrained in farming or estate management. The only interest of the owner is to receive his income and to enjoy the fullest opportunities for sport, and moreover he frequently turns over to

his agents all poor and needy relatives who may be lacking employment. "This is bad economy," remarks Mr. Turnor dryly; "it would be more economical to pension them."

A return to protection is strongly advocated by Mr. Turnor—a return to duties amounting to at least fifteen per cent. on wheat and food stuffs. He has a theory that such duties would tend to eliminate the middleman, and that while prices would be higher, most of the tax would come out of the middleman's profits. He acknowledges that there is nothing now in the way of the organization of farmers in cooperative societies which should do away with middlemen's profits; but he apparently believes that if prices were raised by means of a protective tariff and the farmers were enjoying greater prosperity, the middlemen would kindly consent to be eliminated in order that the consumers might not be too severely mulcted by the duties. There are several other difficulties in the way of a return to protection for which Mr. Turnor fails to indicate any solution. If duties were reimposed on both foreign and colonial foodstuffs, as he advocates, before any of the reforms which he pronounces to be essential had been obtained, the effect even according to his own showing would be to raise the value of land, to swell the rent roll of the present owners, and to increase the tenacity of their hold upon their estates; to make the present slipshod methods of agriculture of a large proportion of the tenant farmers fairly remunerative at the expense of the population at large, and to remove the incentive to improvement which is furnished by the keen competition they now have to meet.

Notes

The Appletons have in the press the late David Graham Phillips's, "The Grain of Dust," and "The Man with an Honest Face," by Paul Wells.

The first issue of the *American Economic Review*, published by the American Economic Association, has just appeared. This new quarterly, which takes the place of the *Economic Bulletin* and the monographs previously published, contains four leading articles: "Some Unsettled Problems of Irrigation," by Prof. Katharine Coman; "How Tariffs Should Not Be Made," by Prof. F. W. Taussig; "Seasonal Variations in the New York Money Market," by Prof. E. W. Kemmerer, and "Promotion of Trade with South America," by Prof. David Kinley. The managing editor is Prof. Davis R. Dewey of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

G. W. Dillingham & Co., who have moved to No. 12 East Twenty-second Street, announce: "The First Law," by Gilson Willits, and "The Man Without a Face," by Albert Bossière, translated from the French by Florence Crewe-Jones.

Owing to the recent destruction of the

New York State Library, the New England Historic Genealogical Society of Boston desires to make public its own great need of a fireproof building; it has the largest and most comprehensive genealogical collections in this country.

The American Philosophical Society, held at Philadelphia, for promoting useful knowledge and founded in 1743, will meet April 20-22.

Andrew Lang has written a book, called "Sir Walter Scott and the Border Minstrelsy" (Longmans), of which the main purpose is to prove that Scott was not dishonest. He does not, of course, address the general public, which has never been seriously concerned about the veracity of the sheriff of Selkirkshire. He aims only to enlighten the austere modern students of balladry who have severely censured the editorial methods of their great predecessor. If what they say is true, argues Mr. Lang, then Scott was a downright liar—no less. The defence is in part a reply to Col. Fitzwilliam Elliott's "The Trustworthiness of Border Ballads," and is occupied largely with "Auld Maitland," "The Ballad of Otterburne," "Jamie Telfer," and "Kinmont Willie." With some show of new evidence, and considerable ingenuity, Mr. Lang, while admitting a liberty larger than current laws allow, insists that Scott did not deliberately attempt to deceive the public. His case as a whole is not entirely convincing, nor at the best does he clear his client of "criminal carelessness" in statement. Ballad specialists will be interested in the three imitation ballads which he presents, with a challenge to Professor Kittredge to point out the infallible signs of their modernity.

Edward Thomas's "Feminine Influence on the Poets" (John Lane) belongs on the shelf with the works of the industrious Mr. Gribble. We have seen of late so many flies tracking from this honey-pot, so much book-making of this seductively facile character, that we know about what to expect under a title like Mr. Thomas's—a loosely organized mass of pretty trite biographical detail, a lush passage here and there, and a grand dearth of ideas. It is a pity that so rich a theme finds no competent historian, no writer of philosophical and historical grasp enabling him to illustrate with the loves of the poets the development of taste and the progress of civilization. A few years ago M. R. De Maulde La Clavière did, indeed, accomplish something of the sort in "Les Femmes de la Renaissance"—a work not without historical purpose and significance. Mr. Thomas unhappily handles his material in the spirit of the dilettante and the gossip.

In the Oxford Editions of Standard Authors Series, Henry Frowde has reissued in two volumes, at two shillings each, William Stebbing's work, formerly published under the title of "The Poets: Geoffrey Chaucer to Alfred Tennyson." In its revised form, the work is called "Five Centuries of English Verse." The first volume extends from Chaucer to Burns; the second, from Wordsworth to Tennyson. Mr. Stebbing has followed the perhaps unfortunately old-fashioned spirit and method of Lamb in dealing with the Elizabethan dramatists. After a life spent with the poets, he has made his own Golden Treas-

ury, consisting of excerpts from seventy-one authors set into the history of his poetical enthusiasms. Books of this character always contain many disputable matters, but, when well written, as this one is, offer excellent browsing.

Sir Norman Lockyer met Lord Tennyson in the sixties, and they were soon drawn together by a common interest in the heavenly bodies as seen through a six-inch telescope in the former's garden. The astronomer was much impressed by the breadth and keenness of the poet's curiosity in scientific matters, and by the accuracy of the scientific figures and allusions in his works. He has now compiled, with Winifred L. Lockyer, a collection of passages from the poems illustrating in a rather special sense the Wordsworthian dictum that poetry is "the impassioned expression which is in the countenance of all science." The volume is entitled "Tennyson as a Student and Poet of Nature," and is published by the Macmillans.

"Essays on Russian Novelists" (Macmillan), by Prof. W. L. Phelps, is a volume of cheerful criticism of gloomy literature, from an enthusiastically appreciative and yet a frankly American point of view. Professor Phelps states (p. 231) that "Russian novelists are a thorn in the side of complacent optimism," but he does not let the "thorn" cause him the least personal irritation. The book, despite a few slips of detail, is thoroughly sane and helpful, and makes the reader wish to turn to the novelists themselves. The essays on the great figures of Russian fiction, Gogol, Turgenev, Dostoevski, and Tolstoy, are superior both in matter and manner to those on their successors, Gorki, Chekhov, Artsybashev, Andreev, and Kuprin. A good "list of publications," by Andrew Keogh of the Yale Library, adds to the usefulness of the volume.

Charles Francis Adams continues his military study of the American Revolution in the Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society (see *Nation*, November 3, 1910, p. 423), by describing the campaign of 1777. If the capture of Philadelphia was the object of Howe, a land march would have placed him before the city in a few days, in spite of any efforts of Washington to prevent it. If he intended to aid Burgoyne, now coming from Canada, his proper course was up the Hudson to meet him. Instead of doing either, Howe put his army on transports and departed on a voyage of some weeks' duration, in which he was entirely outside of active operations, either in aid of Burgoyne or in offensive operations against Washington. Blundering as Howe's manœuvre was, that of Washington was, according to Mr. Adams, equally so, and involved serious dangers. He stripped his army to reinforce Gates, and in that condition he marched against the stronger and better equipped army of Howe, inviting the inevitable defeat at Brandywine. Then, failing to defend the forts on the Delaware, he found himself without power to act. Mr. Adams holds that, occupying a position of vantage, and acting upon interior lines, Washington, as soon as Howe sailed from New York for the South, should have marched his army to the North, crushed Burgoyne, and returning with the combined army, flushed with victory, he could have met Howe on equal terms, with every chance of success, and brought an end to the

war. It is impossible to do more than suggest the subject of this elaborate paper. The vigorous tone of criticism and questioning gives a wholesome challenge to what has come to be accepted as good historical writing.

The Rev. Dr. George Brown, "pioneer missionary and explorer," whose acquaintance with Pacific Islands extends over nearly fifty years, has now brought together his observations in a stout volume, entitled "Melanesians and Polynesians" (Macmillan). He deals especially with New Britain (now New Pomerania), New Ireland (New Mecklenburg), and the Duke of York group (New Lauenburg), in the northwest, and with Samoa in the centre. All these are at present under German control, the northwestern group being renamed Bismarck Archipel. While Dr. Brown's observations are always valuable, his chief contribution to Melanesian sociology is his description of customs on New Britain, on which island there was no white man living when he landed in 1875. His remarks on Samoa and adjacent islands give material in addition to what is found in Turner and other writers; but it is on New Britain life that he goes into greatest detail. Besides the usual features of Melanesian social constitution (class exogamy, cult of spirits, and germinal forms of gods, prayer, taboo, loose political organizations), he describes fully the cannibal habit, the great variety of methods of burial (adjacent districts therein differing notably), commercial customs, secret societies, and ideas concerning the future life. Cannibalism, he thinks, is not due to scarcity of food, and cannibals are not ferocious; some cannibals that he knew were "very nice people." The Dukduk and Iniat Societies have severe ceremonies of initiation, and wield enormous power. The former has a couple of woman members; the latter has images of supernatural beings. Totemic restrictions of food do not exist. There is a regular system of borrowing and lending; at interest (shell money is used), and a custom that is nearly identical with the potlatch of our Northwest Pacific Coast: a young man calls together his friends and neighbors, and divides among them all his property and all that he has been able to borrow. After a while they give him greater amounts, and he is enriched (a sort of system of investment). Prices vary according to the relation between supply and demand. The artistic excellence of carved figures in New Ireland (as also in New Guinea and the Solomon Islands) is remarkable. The belief in the existence of mermaids and tailed men brings the native near mediæval Europe in culture. The souls of the dead are invoked for aid, but are not sacrificed to; there are punishments in the other world for niggardliness, theft, and breaches of etiquette. The snake-bridge of Normanby Island (which lies off the southeast coast of New Guinea) recalls the Persian Cinvat bridge: the great warrior passes over in safety; the deformed or ugly is precipitated into the chasm. Altogether, Dr. Brown's volume sets before us a very interesting picture of a nascent Melanesian civilization, apparently indigenous. For what he says of the Melanesian languages he has had help from Codrington and others. Other parts of his work, relating to Polynesia, would have

been better if he had been better acquainted with general Polynesian history.

Christopher Hare's "Romance of a Medici Warrior" (Scribner) concerns the brief but adventurous life of Giovanni delle Bande Nere, the son of the still more famous Caterina Sforza, the Lady of Forlì. It is a popular book, of that class which has sprung up and flourished during the last few years, and is seemingly written for the sake of its illustrations. Although less exciting than a Dumas novel, it is usually readable, and it contains a sufficient ballast of documented facts to warrant its being catalogued as history. Mr. Hare devotes the last third of his volume to the life of Giovanni's son, Cosimo I, who is chiefly remembered now as the consort of Bianca Capello. Italian proper names elude the author's proofreading.

The volume on Ceylon, lately published by H. Parker and already reviewed in the *Nation*, has been closely followed by "Village Folk-tales of Ceylon," by the same author (Luzac & Co.). By way of introduction, Mr. Parker gives a realistic description of village life in Ceylon, including accounts of flora and fauna, the life of the farmers, tricks of the snake-charmers, etc., together with a short statement regarding the sources of the seventy-five folk-tales which the volume contains. They are the genuine stories of the Sinhalese, being almost entirely free from foreign influence, and were collected by Mr. Parker himself during his long residence in Ceylon as head of the Irrigation Department. A number of them come from the lowest castes, from whom hitherto nothing literary, even of the simplest sort, has been gleaned. Many of the circumstances alluded to are of social interest, and even of historical importance, as when "Vaedda kings" appear in the stories. As in all collections of folk-tales, there are innumerable points connecting these stories with those of other lands. The author thinks that very few reflect Buddhist influence. Notes appended to the stories give parallel tales from the Punjab, Kashmir, etc. Other folk-lore will be able to add a good deal from a wider circle. The author promises to supplement this volume with another shortly.

Wilhelm Ostwald's "Die Forderung des Tages" (Leipzig: Akademische Verlagsgesellschaft) is made up of a large number of addresses, lectures, and essays, on a great variety of subjects, held together by a thread of autobiographical narrative. Its delightful bits of reminiscences are a contribution to the psychology of the scholar of to-day, wide awake and interested in everything that goes on in the world of action and thought, whether it has anything to do with his own specialty or not. To be called a dilettante does not disturb him. Ostwald says, in the preface to another of his recent books, "Energetische Grundlagen der Kulturwissenschaft," that, in the interest of the cause, he has conquered the fear of entering another field as a dilettante, seeing that he on one occasion had been of assistance to the anthropologist Friedrich Ratzel, in offering him through the theory of energetics "ein bequemes und ausreichendes Denkmittel." And this theory, whose bearing on the humanities as well as on the natural sciences Ostwald himself rediscovered, is the leitmotif of his latest book. The title of the book the author

took, as he tells in the introduction, from Goethe's "Maximen und Reflektionen": "Wie kann man sich selbst best kennen lernen? Durch Betrachten niemals, wohl aber durch Handeln. Versuche, deine Pflicht zu tun, und du wirst sogleich was an dir ist. Was aber ist deine Pflicht? Die Forderung des Tages." During his whole life as teacher, first as young Dozent in Dorpat, afterwards as professor, first in the Polytechnicum in Riga, then at the University of Leipzig, each day was always filled with its own demands. Now, though relieved from the daily duties of the university teacher, he still finds the day too short, so many are the causes which he has made his own. The first paper in the volume before us, "Zur modernen Energetik," serves as a guide to the thought that underlies the whole book. This theory, which he has expressed most concisely in the words: "die Energie ist unsere Welt," is related to pragmatism, and is, as Ostwald expressly states in the current number of the *Annalen der Naturphilosophie*, not a "general and sufficient principle for the understanding of the universe," but a method by which to explain phenomena. The contents of the volume fall into the following six groups, besides the introduction and the conclusion: Allgemeine Energetik, Methodik, Psychologie und Biographie, Allgemeine Kulturprobleme, Die Internationale Hilfsprache, Unterrichtswesen. The history of civilization is "the history of the subjection of energy by man," he says in the study of "Energetik und Kulturgeschichte." The aim of it all is "the delivery of humanity from suffering and the increase of its pleasure." But it is not a question of a superficial utilitarianism or hedonism. In "Der Fall Wangel" he tells of a well-known actress who left a successful career on the stage to join the Salvation Army, and who there, in the unselfish work for her fellow-beings, found the highest "increase of her pleasure." As a theory of human life and work, energetics might be called the theory of efficiency. Encourage everything that makes for efficiency, for the display of your fullest power, combat everything that produces a disproportionate amount of waste. What waste, for instance, it is that each people on the earth has its own language and that members of different nationalities who wish to communicate with one another must learn all these languages, which, besides, are made up according to no scientific or logical rules. Therefore, there is need of an auxiliary language. It should seem that here is, according to Ostwald, the greatest obstacle to the fullest efficiency; at least, he gave a substantial part of the Nobel prize to this cause.

Sir J. D. Rees, the author of "Modern India" (London: George Allen & Sons), has had a long and honorable career as an administrator in England's Eastern empire, having been at one time a member of the Council of the Governor-General of India; at present he has retired from active service and is a member of the British Parliament. His new volume is one of a series which aims to present a trustworthy description of British interests, resources, and life throughout the empire, and has been preceded by "Yesterday and To-day in Canada" by the Duke of Argyll, and "South Africa," by the Hon. J. X. Merriman. It is manifestly impossible within the scope of one small volume to discuss in even a mod-

orately exhaustive manner such fundamental questions as the ethnology, the caste system, and the religions of India; the foundation of British rule, the development of the Indian administrative machinery, the economic, political, and social results of British rule, and the manifold complexity of the present political situation. Nevertheless, the author has achieved his avowed purpose of touching upon most of the important issues and of adding something new to our knowledge of them. He effectively deals with such questions as the so-called economic "drain" of Indian resources by England, the participation of Indians in the government of the country, and the stock criticisms so often uttered by the professional critic of the British. In short, the book will give the thoughtful reader an intelligent and comprehensive outlook on the Indian situation.

"Das junge Deutschland und Goethe," by A. C. von Noë, was accepted by the faculty of the University of Chicago as a doctor's dissertation in 1905, but has only recently been published, the author having projected a larger treatise in which he hoped to incorporate it. After a brief survey of the literature already published on the subject, and a list of his own references, the author outlines the æsthetic programme of the movement known in literary history as Young Germany. He then takes up the writers of the movement and discusses their various relations to Goethe, backing up each statement made by quotations from the author concerned. Because of their outspoken partisanship, it goes without saying that their judgment of Goethe and his significance for Germany was not unanimous, and could not be expected to settle the question of what the Germans should make of their greatest poet. Menzel hated him violently all his life, ascribing to him talent, but no genius. Börne accused him of cowardice, servility, and weakness of character, but had words of praise for his lyric poetry. Heine's attitude toward him varied with his own state of health and personal or political affiliations, and may have been somewhat influenced by a feeling of jealousy; but as he grew in years he grew also in appreciation of Goethe. Wienburg showed from the beginning a clearer grasp of Goethe's life and work, and was far more objective in his portrayal of the poet's relation to his age, even calling him the spiritual liberator of Germany. The other writers of the school represented combinations and variations of the tendencies of the three already mentioned. Goethe was such a dominating figure in the life and thought of his nation that if agitators could not use him for their purpose they felt they must seek to destroy his influence. Von Noë's study is interesting, not only in its results, but also in that the material collected illustrates the extreme opposite of the over-zealous Goethe cult, of which so much has been said and written. It should seem as though Goethe had first to die and be vehemently maligned before he could become a permanent positive influence in the progress of his race.

The death, a year ago, of Prof. William Graham Sumner, and the tributes to his memory and work which came from a multitude of sources, brought to the public attention the fact, hardly recognized even by many of his warm friends and admir-

ers, that the latter years of his life were devoted to studies more arduous, profound, and significant than those of his earlier manhood. The opinion had become somewhat general that when Professor Sumner swung over from the field of economics into sociology his creative work was mainly over. The error of this idea, however, was impressed upon all who read his last volume, entitled "Folkways," which appeared in 1907, and has just been reprinted (Ginn & Co.). This book was intended to be introductory to his treatise on the "Science of Society," upon which he had been working for eight years, but which he never completed. It contains in condensed form much of the richest and ripest of his individual thinking, and stands as a permanent contribution to the knowledge of social facts. As the sub-title indicates, it is "a study of the sociological importance of usages, manners, customs, mores, and morals." The greatest value of the book lies in the illuminating discussion of the nature of the mores—a word which he used in its broadest sense—their method of growth, and their influence on human life and society. He strips society of all shams, and shows its true character with great clarity. The new printing contains only occasional slight changes in the text; it has, as frontispiece, a portrait of the author, and an introductory note by Prof. Albert G. Keller, the closest of his academic associates. Of special interest are the announcement by the Yale University Press of a memorial volume of collected essays, written by Professor Sumner, but not hitherto published in book form, and the tentative promise of the "Science of Society."

Chief Engineer Edward Biddle Latch, who died on Monday in his seventy-eighth year, and who had the rank of commander on the retired list of the navy, was the author of "A Review of the Holy Bible" and of a series of "Indications" dealing with the books of Job, Genesis, Exodus, Romans, Revelation, Leviticus, and Numbers.

The Rev. Thomas Samuel Hastings, D.D., former president of the Union Theological Seminary, died suddenly on Sunday, in his eighty-fourth year. He graduated from Hamilton College in 1848 and from the Union Theological Seminary in 1851. He received the D.D. from New York University, the LL.D. from Princeton, and from Hamilton College the L.H.D.

Science

Intracellular Pangenesis. By Hugo de Vries. Translated by C. Stuart Gager. Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Co. \$3 net.

Near the end of the second volume of his treatise on "Animals and Plants under Domestication," Charles Darwin says that he was led, or rather forced, to form an hypothesis which connects the large classes of facts bearing on variation in organisms. He calls it "merely a provisional hypothesis or speculation; but until a better one be advanced, it will serve to bring together a multi-

tude of facts which are at present left disconnected by any efficient cause. . . . Under this point of view, I venture to advance the hypothesis of Pangenesis, which implies that every separate part of the whole organization reproduces itself." In a foot-note, he candidly presents the most important objections which numerous critics raised against the hypothesis, and with unfeigned and characteristic modesty admits their force. In an early letter to Prof. Asa Gray, he wrote: "The chapter on what I call Pangenesis will be called a mad dream, . . . but, at the bottom of my own mind, I think it contains a great truth." In a letter, written a little later, to Sir Joseph Hooker, and quoted by the translator of the present work, he wrote: "I feel sure if Pangenesis is now stillborn, it will, thank God, at some future time reappear, begotten by some other father, and christened by some other name." Among the few who discerned the value of the hypothesis, was Hugo de Vries of Amsterdam. He saw that by a slight change in terminology and by an essential modification in one of the characters of the mechanism assumed by the hypothesis, a part of the serious objection could be removed. He suggested the substitution of the term *pangen* for the term *gemmule*, and he assumed that these material particles, which are the bearers of individual hereditary characters need not be transported, as Darwin suggested, throughout the whole organism, nor even from one cell of the organism to another, but may carry on their efficient work within the individual cell. Thus Darwin's hypothesis of pangenesis became De Vries's hypothesis of intracellular pangenesis. The revised hypothesis has now seen more than a score of years, without having received, before this, so far as we are aware, an adequate introduction to the English-reading public. The work in its original forms has been well known to scientific students, but even so, it has hardly received the attention which its merits deserved.

The whole question of heredity is engaging the energy of hundreds of investigators at the present time, and each one of these investigators is confronted by questions as to the mechanics of inheritance. Take, for instance, a Red Oak. In each of its forming seeds, there is a microscopic granule of living-matter which has been impregnated. This microscopic granule is endowed with powers of development which will, sooner or later, bring into full stature the oak tree. Moreover, it will bring out of the past and give to the mature oak, all the characteristic features of its immediate ancestors, and confer upon its flowers the power of transmitting these features to countless generations. Here then is the problem. What material entity within so small a compass can receive and transmit all the features of a race? The

physicist is obliged to postulate for his studies the existence of an ether, which cannot be demonstrated; the biologist endeavors to assume the existence of equally undemonstrable material particles. The ingenious manner in which the pangens are made to account for many of the activities of the organism will be of interest to a wide circle of readers whose pursuits lie outside the fields of biology. Every reader will find Professor Gager's translation remarkably free from involved sentences. The work is enriched by an admirable chapter on Fertilization and Hybridization, in which certain peculiar views of de Vries are well stated.

In a revision of his popular book, "Familiar Trees and Their Leaves" (D. Appleton), F. Schuyler Mathews tries a very interesting experiment on his readers. He is an accurate delineator of plants, whose services have long been in request by authors desirous of precise drawings. Now, in a revised edition of one of his own most popular works, he has reproduced his charming sketches in black and white, all of which are characterized by exactness, and then he has added good reproductions of a dozen impressionist water-color paintings. Of these last, he says, "My sketches in water-color were intentionally impressionistic. I avoided all those petty details which the camera could have given with minute fidelity, and aimed for color and effect, for mass and character." In these water-colors we have "lilac shadows, purple tree trunks, emerald foliage, cobalt sky, and the warm pink tone of the atmosphere" of an artist's day, of which the camera can make no record. He speaks of "the colored fire of cloud and sky, and the soft emerald of the meadow broken by the lilac-blue shadow" of the elm, and asks what camera can tell of these. In short, an artist, recognized as an accurate delineator in black and white, now presents these paintings which seem to him to be essentially truthful, and yet has purposely avoided all detail. Our readers will find a study of these sketches of much interest. The text has here and there received some emendation, always for the better.

Mrs. Ellen Henrietta Richards, for twenty-five years instructor of sanitary chemistry in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, died last week at her home in Boston, aged sixty-eight. She graduated from Vassar College in 1870. Her writings include: "Chemistry of Cooking and Cleaning," "Food Materials and Their Adulterations," "The Cost of Living," "The Cost of Shelter," "The Art of Right Living," and "The Cost of Cleanness."

Dr. Simon M. Brainin of New York city died last Friday. He was born at Riga, Livonia, Russia, in 1854, and studied medicine in Dorpat and Berlin. He was appointed physician to the Jewish Community in Riga, and in the early nineties was its director. Dr. Brainin was a delegate to the Rabbinical conference in St. Petersburg in 1892, and a member of the Society for the Promotion of Culture Among the Jews of Russia. He came to this city in 1895. His books include "Sanitation and Hygiene" in Hebrew, and "Medical Guide" in Russian.

Drama

THE BOSS ON THE STAGE.

Paul Bourget's latest play, with politics for its subject, has failed in Paris. Its fate leads one earnest critic to ask why politicians on the stage are almost always an artistic failure. With us the politician, in the British sense, is not so popular among dramatists as the boss. And with good reason. If the drama is to consist in a conflict of wills, what possible opportunity is there for Congressmen or members of the Legislature who notoriously have no will of their own? Power with us emanates from the boss, and in him, too, abides that picturesqueness of character which is indispensable to the playwright. Yet with all his initial advantages it must be confessed that the boss has scarcely been made a more effective figure on our stage than the parliamentarian or Cabinet Minister across the water. The type, as the playwrights have built it up, has become classic. The boss is a fat, unscrupulous person, with an inexhaustible fund of ready humor, and a fondness for roustabouts and little children. Like the inhabitants of a certain cannibal island discovered by the young English naval lieutenant and described in a brief cable to the Admiralty Office, his morals are none and his manners are beastly. In the end he does succumb to virtue as embodied in the honest young district attorney who is in love with his youngest daughter. But we are left with the impression that the defeat of the boss is a concession to the sentiment of the audience rather than to the inevitable march of events.

In Bourget's play the author is held not to have proved his thesis because the conflict he has depicted is not between the politician and the state, but between the politician who is a doting father and the state. In other words, he fights and loses not as a man of politics, but as any one might fight and lose, whether butcher or baker or Prime Minister, or boss. As a matter of fact, there are almost as many types of boss as there are bosses. In point of physique it is not essential that his chin should be double and his complexion unhealthy. Abe Ruef does not resemble Charles F. Murphy, and Matt Quay did not look like George B. Cox of Cincinnati. To show that their methods are frequently the same does not justify the creation of a type. Even their life history may be greatly alike in its progress from humble circumstances to the manipulation of millions of votes and dollars, and yet lay no basis for the development of a type. Grocers and dry-goods merchants make use of very much the same methods in their respective trades, but the type of the grocer or the merchant holds little dramatic promise. As a comic type the boss has

his possibilities. George Ade has shown that in his "County Chairman." But precisely because the boss has become the daily food of the newspaper caricaturist and the newspaper paragrapher, he has become difficult of use on the stage. What the playwright has actually done is to give bodily presentment to the boss as the cartoonist has developed him.

On the mere ground of effective portrayal, the boss hardly lends himself to the purposes of the stage. The playwright sets out to depict a man of infinite resource and sagacity, like Kipling's mariner, and most often makes him act like a child. The mere notion of wire-pulling is hostile to the broad, coarse action of the stage. Plots nurtured during weeks of husky whisperings must be formulated on the stage in five minutes. Legislators who fight off temptation for years must succumb within the brief space of a single interview. It is precisely the same difficulty that confronts the playwright who attempts a great orator or a great musician or a great wit. In the very nature of things, the playwright's oratory, musicianship, or wit is bound to fall below the requirement; we are not living in Shakespeare's time. The mechanics of business life are too complicated for the stage. The captains of finance who have lately been inundating the stage in plays of the hour are a sorry lot, mentally. The ease with which they eliminate their enemies involves the suspicion of contributory negligence on the part of the latter. We may take the best of the plays of business life—Mirbeau's "Business is Business." The extraordinarily vivid figure of Lechat, the pirate-captain of industry, is depleted not in what he does but in what he says. We are shown a man who is a brute in his home, and we find it easy to imagine what he must be in his office. The only business scene in the play, the episode near the end where Lechat outwits the two rascally "promoters," is not very impressive. One of the two men is a fool and the other is a coward, and Lechat has only to yell at them for a minute or two in order to confound them. How infantile does this situation on the stage appear when compared with the record of one day's transactions in the history of the Carnegie Trust Company! Lechat the beast of prey is an impressive figure; Lechat the man of business is convincing only by reflected light.

But the fundamental fallacy lies in assuming that there can be a typical boss on the stage. For the approximate uses of every-day conversation we may speak of the typical boss or the typical business man or the typical artist. But when we speak of types on the stage we mean figures impressed with the stamp of universality. Tartuffe is a type, and Hamlet is a type, and Don Quixote and

Falstaff and Joe Sedley and Mrs. Jellyby are types, for the reason that in every one of us abides the capacity for hypocrisy, or ailment of the will, or ideal delusion, or the gross joys of life, or selfishness, or slovenliness. But it is quite evident that not all of us can be bosses or captains of industry or woman-suffrage leaders. A true type is made by the soul within. Occupations and professions are only accidents. There may be types of elevator boys and "salesladies" and commissioners of water, gas, and electricity; but such are sufficient only for the purposes of the comic artist and the vaudeville comedian, not for the stage.

Grace Isobel Colbron has made an English translation of Björnstjerne Björnson's two-act play, "A Lesson in Marriage" (Brandus). It narrates the troubles of a young husband, whose wife had been the spoiled child of doting parents, and who resented the proposal that she should leave the home in which she had so long been paramount. Her parents also regard his wish to have his wife to himself as a manifestation of heartless selfishness. But he stands upon his rights, and finally—with the assistance of a female ally, who awakens the wife's conscience by means of a parabolical story—procures his own and everybody else's happiness. The little play exhibits humor and observation, and makes pleasant reading, but is too artificial and didactic for stage representation. Moreover, it has no real dramatic interest, as the happy ending is never in doubt, and the emotional tempests are of tea-cup dimensions.

Mrs. Fiske is generally regarded as an exponent of the intellectual drama, but "Mrs. Bumpstead-Leigh," the "new comedy," by Harry James Smith, which she presented in the Lyceum Theatre on Monday evening, is a piece of no distinction either in manner or matter. The intent of it, which is to ridicule the democratic desire for aristocratic connections, and the absurdities of false family pride, is sound enough, but the illustrations are so crude and extravagant as to be inadmissible, except in farce or burlesque. The work of a novice's hand is betrayed by the long passages of narrative, the old stage types, the transparency of the devices, the arbitrary arrangement of convenient incident, and the utter conventionality of the means by which the desired ending is ultimately procured. If the piece had not offered a part generally suitable to the theatrical methods of Mrs. Fiske, and one that promised to keep her well in the limelight, it is not at all likely that it would have been produced in its present shape. The part is that of a social adventuress, a vulgar variant of the Becky Sharp type, who pushes her own way to the front and converts threatened defeat into victory by conduct which reduces her almost to the level of the common black-mailer. It is not pleasant in itself, and it is not notable for originality, veracity, or brilliancy of delineation, but it fits fairly well the theatrical personality of Mrs. Fiske, who plays it with her usual restless vivacity and abundant assurance. She was generously applauded—for she has a large body of faithful followers—but she is mak-

ing no advancement as an actress, and her speech is becoming less and less articulate.

A performance of Marlowe's "Doctor Faustus" was given recently at Essen, Germany. For the occasion the text of 1604 had been translated by Morebach and Repp; the staging was in the Elizabethan manner.

Sir Herbert Tree has decided to end the run of "Henry VIII" at His Majesty's Theatre, in London, on the 15th inst. He will then revive "A Midsummer Night's Dream," in which Arthur Bourchier will be the Bottom. New dresses and much new scenery have been prepared. The production of "Macbeth" has been once more postponed, until the beginning of next season.

It is probable that the new play which Walter Frith has written for Laurence Irving will be produced in London before the end of the present year. Mr. Frith has also finished a new three-act piece, which has been procured by Lyn Harding. The leading part is that of a Welsh poet-farmer. Owing to the lack of a suitable London theatre, this play will have its earliest production in the provinces.

Herr Reinhardt has just given his spectacular production of the second part of "Faust" in the Deutsches Theater, Berlin. A correspondent of a London journal says:

The numerous changes of scene—nearly twenty in number—succeeded each other with admirable precision, and the 8,000 lines of the text had been so shortened that it was hardly possible for the pageant to drag. The scenic effects, which included an elephant and a centaur, were extraordinarily effective and ingenious. . . . Considered as a pageant, and not as a tragedy, still less an allegory, Herr Reinhardt's production must be regarded as a brilliant success.

Edmond Rostand is at work on a translation of Goethe into French; he begins with "Goetz" and "Tasso."

Paul Bourget's new play, "Le Tribun," which has just been produced in Paris, and which purported to exhibit the conflict between the principles of Socialism and the system of the family, seems to miss its mark entirely, and to be totally ineffective as a demonstration. Portal, Socialistic leader and prime minister, has discovered a system of parliamentary bribery in connection with admiralty contracts, which he expects to turn to great political account. He entrusts the evidence against the chief offenders to his son, whom he has made his confidential secretary. But the young man is desperately infatuated with a Madame Claudel, whose husband is on the verge of disgraceful bankruptcy. So he sells the evidence in his hands to the guilty persons for a huge sum of money, with which he relieves the distresses of his enchantress. When Portal learns the truth, he resolves to play the Roman father, and send his son to jail, but when the public prosecutor arrives he yields to the instinct of paternal tenderness and refuses to make any complaint. Then he resigns his office. It is clear that the issue here is in no way between Socialism and the family, but between paternal affection and official responsibility. Thus the play had little or none of the political significance which had been supposed to attach to it. But Guilty is said to have been uncommonly fine in the character of the broken statesman and wounded father.

Music

Some Commentaries on the Teaching of Pianoforte Technique. By Tobias Matthay. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. 50 cents.

Baltzell's Dictionary of Musicians. By W. J. Baltzell. Boston: Oliver Ditson Co. \$1.25.

While the German-speaking peoples have given to the world most of the greatest music ever written, it is singular that as performers the Germans do not excel in the same way. Their great operatic conductors are mostly Hungarians, their singers, with a few exceptions, are not among the best, while of their pianists not one has equalled the Hungarian Liszt, the Russian Rubinstein, the Polish Chopin, Paderewski, and Hofmann. Yet Germany is now considered, as Italy used to be, a high-school of music for all the world. Professor Matthay of the Royal Academy of Music in London thinks, however, that the state of affairs when no British student felt safe unless he had finished his schooling abroad is now past history. He is glad of it, too, because we have to thank Germany, pianistically, "for much of the very worst teaching, to instance only the interminable exercise-grinding and monumental blunders of some of her 'Schools' and 'Methods'—methods which were accepted here and in America as undeniable gospel."

Eight years ago Professor Matthay gave to the world a book entitled "The Art of Touch," in which he tried to show that touch in pianoforte playing is no more a gift than is the art of articulate speech itself, and that it "can be acquired by every person of average intelligence"; upon which we commented that "if this be true, it is the most important news communicated to the musical world for many years." In that book, which remains the best treatise on the subject, the author glossed over many points in order that the main issues might not be obscured. These points he has now taken in hand in this Supplement to it, which is concerned with such topics as the principle of forearm rotation, arm-vibration, pianissimo playing, the use of bad touch forms, the artificial legato element, the purpose of arm-weight, the difference between key-striking and true pianoforte touch. On this last topic the author writes with much indignation, railing at the primitive and childish doctrine still taught in Germany that touch at the piano consists of tapping of the key-levers by finger-action or knuckle-action alone, although Czerny long ago recommended that the finger should reach the key "without any actual blow" and that the keys "must be pressed down." Two prominent German pedagogues, Steinhausen and Breithaupt, have recently issued treatises in which, on the whole,

the true method is taught; yet, in a chapter on British piano progress, Professor Matthay does not hesitate to say that "comparing the average English piano student with the average German student, we must pronounce England to have won the day—for the present."

The question whether professional teaching aids in producing great pianists is not considered by Professor Matthay. England has not yet produced one of higher rank than Fanny Davies and Katharine Goodson, unless Harold Bauer, whose mother was English and who was born in London, be credited to that country; in which case D'Albert may be called Scotch. Add to these the Irishman John Field, the originator of the nocturne, and we get a respectable array of names. All of these, with probably some minor ones of recent fame, may be found in W. J. Baitzell's latest volume, the "Dictionary of Musicians," which aims at being quite up-to-date, although some important names, among them those of the three great operatic conductors, Campanini, Hertz, and Toscanini, have been unaccountably omitted. English critics like Newman, Baughan, and Shaw might complain that they had as much claim to being mentioned as some of the American critics included in this volume. Had this book appeared a few weeks later, Mr. Baitzell would have been able to correct the statement that "Königskinder" has not been a success; it has proved both in America and Germany the biggest success of the season. The remarks anent Liszt's literary works are very misleading and unjust; some of them were marred by the collaboration of the Princess Wittgenstein, but the pages written by Liszt are easily recognizable and they compete with Schumann's literary writings for the claim of being awarded first prize among all books on music. Apart from these points the new biographic dictionary deserves much praise. Constantin von Sternberg contributes a page on the pronunciation of Russian names, and Tchaikovsky is spelled as in England, and not, as usually in this country, in the German way, Tschalkowsky.

A musical trilogy has, it is said, been written by Gustave Charpentier, author of "Louise," each part having two acts.

Max Reger, whom his admirers call "the Bach of the twentieth century," has been appointed general musical director of the Meiningen Theatre.

"Another American girl has been acclaimed in Italy as a rising opera star. Her name is Meta Reddish; she has studied abroad for two years, and a few weeks ago she made her debut in Naples as Amina in "La Sonnambula."

Berlin is better supplied with opera than any other city in the world. Besides the Königliche Opernhaus there are two other theatres which give operatic performances every day, and on Sundays usually two. The

cosmopolitan taste of the Berliners is illustrated by the list of operas sung on the seven days from March 12 to 18. At the Royal Institution the repertory included Mozart's "Magic Flute," Humperdinck's "Königskinder," Donizetti's "Daughter of the Regiment," Wagner's "Lohengrin," Beethoven's "Fidelio," Leoncavallo's "Mala." At the Komische Oper the works performed were: Verdi's "Traviata," Offenbach's "Hoffman's Tales," Puccini's "La Bohème," and "Tosca," Mozart's "Figaro," Verdi's "Il Trovatore," Johann Strauss's "Fledermaus," D'Albert's "Tiefand," The Volksoper gave: Meyerbeer's "L'Africaine," Flotow's "Martha," Verdi's "Il Trovatore," "The Dollar Princess," Nessler's "Trumpeter of Säckingen," Verdi's "The Masked Ball," Weber's "Der Freischütz." In all, nineteen operas and one operetta.

The last volume of Glasenapp's monumental biography of Wagner is to be published in May by Breitkopf & Härtel.

Strauss's new opera, "The Rose Cavalier," has already been sung in German, Italian, and Czech. An English version is now in preparation. The manager of the Royal Opera in Berlin evidently does not want this work, for the Straussites have twice been taken in special trains to Dresden to hear it, and now it is said that the Magdeburg Opera Company is to be engaged to give it in Berlin at the Neue Schauspielhaus.

Henry Holt & Co. have arranged with Lieut. Arthur A. Clappe for a book on "The Wind-Band and its Instruments," which will be illustrated.

Sir Edward Elgar has accompanied the Sheffield Choir across the Atlantic to conduct performances of his "Dream of Gerontius," at Montreal, on March 2; Indianapolis, April 21; Chicago, April 24, and St. Paul, April 28, and of "The Kingdom" at Cincinnati, on April 18. In addition to Sir Edward's works the repertory will comprise "Messiah," "Elijah," Verdi's "Requiem," Berlioz's "Faust," Sullivan's "Golden Legend," Parry's "Best Pair of Sirens," Bach's "Pan," as well as glees, madrigals, part-songs, and choruses by British composers. Australia and South Africa are also included in this tour.

Dodd, Mead & Co., who have procured the American rights of "The Autobiography of Richard Wagner," give out the following concerning the way in which the work has for so many years been kept secret:

Between the years 1868 and 1873 Wagner compiled his memoirs from diaries and other memoranda which he had kept for thirty-five years. As these memoirs were extremely frank, and discussed not only the affairs of the author, but the affairs and characteristics of prominent people of the time who were well known to the writer, Wagner took the utmost precautions to keep his work a secret. As it was impossible at that time to secure duplicate copies by a typewriter, the book was set up by French composers who did not understand German. Twelve copies were printed, and the types were then distributed. Of these twelve copies eight were entrusted to Frau Cosima Wagner and four copies were distributed among the author's nearest and dearest friends. The greatest care was exercised in the event of the death of any one of these five people that the closely guarded memoirs should be turned over to one of the survivors. In this way the secret was kept so closely that, although Wagner died twenty-eight years ago, very few people, even in Germany, have known his autobiography was in existence.

Art

AT THE NATIONAL GALLERY.

LONDON, March 25.

It is too soon to pronounce definitely upon the work now being done at the National Gallery. Chaos still prevails in the old rooms: walls overcrowded, screens standing where they are least expected and least wanted, doors walled up with building or re-building going on behind them. But five new rooms and a fine basement below have been opened, and their opening and the temporary exhibition of Lord Lansdowne's Mill have brought art once more upon the town, and Trafalgar Square and Pall Mall are lined with carriages, queues form as at the door of a popular theatre, a fresh newspaper correspondence is started, and Rembrandt's name is in everybody's mouth.

But the new rooms are something more than a seven days' wonder. They give a good idea of the manner in which the work of enlargement and rearrangement is being carried out, and of its value. Of the gain already in wall space, there can be no question. Pictures now enjoy a margin and are spread out along the line instead of being hung one above the other until the highest cannot be seen without a kink in the neck and weariness to the eyes. The improvement in this respect when all the new galleries are complete can hardly be over-estimated. Four of the rooms are of fairly good size; the fifth is very large, like the Venetian, Dutch, and Umbrian Rooms. Of the decorations I must speak with more reserve. London dirt and London atmosphere are so kind to the London decorator that he is apt to take advantage of the fact and rely upon them for his effects. A great deal has been left to time in these new rooms, which will probably be pleasanter and more restful a few months from now. The walls are covered with a heavy embossed paper, highly varnished, admirable from a spring-cleaning point of view, but with a disagreeable trick when fresh of catching the light, when old of catching the dirt, on the high ridges of the pattern. The flat tone used in the basement rooms makes a much more quiet and less obtrusive background. Nor do I think the choice of the color very happy. In two of the rooms, it is a vivid, rather sharp green; in two, a dull, lifeless red; in the large room, a gold that somehow is more broken up by the pattern than either the red or the green. The walls of the old rooms covered with the same paper show that the tone given to it by time has a tendency to dinginess. The frieze and the vaultings of the ceiling throughout the new building are of pure white, in its freshness so glaring that it cries out for a coating of London dirt; the glass at the top would be no less improved by a layer of

London smoke and smuts, for, extraordinary as it may seem to say such a thing of a gallery in London, the light at certain hours is far too brilliant, more especially in the large room. This is a fault, however, that a velarium or a system of blinds could easily remedy. The most has been made of the opportunity of rearranging as many of the pictures as the new rooms will hold. The work of the Ferrarese, Parmese, and Bolognese schools as now grouped in one of them, can be far better seen than ever before. The French school, filling two, is treated with greater consideration than it has hitherto received, though the gaps in it are still deplorable. Claude is shown with a trifle more dignity at last. Fantin's portrait of Mr. and Mrs. Edwin Edwards hangs on the walls, while opposite a place has been made for Corots and a Millet from the Salting collection. A fourth room is devoted to the sixteen Turners reserved for the National Gallery when the others were removed to the Tate, and here the two Claudes hang again by the two Turners, as the English painter was mistaken enough to stipulate in his will that they should. As the other Claudes are in the adjoining room, the student may further pursue and elaborate the suggested comparison. The large gallery contains a fine selection of British pictures from Dobson and Hogarth to Constable and Crome. The sense of space here is delightful, all the more so when one remembers the overlaid, jumbled-up walls of the British Section as it used to be not so very long ago. No one painter is represented, even as exhaustively as he might be in Trafalgar Square, but a representative series of each has been made, and Hogarth's Shrimp Girl—not, however, enjoying the place of distinction it deserves—Reynolds's Three Graces and portrait of Two Gentlemen, Gainsborough's Mrs. Siddons, Constable's Hay Wain, Crome's Mousehold Heath, with other paintings as characteristic, now hang together. In the endeavor to show the British pictures at their best, as was never possible under the old conditions, zeal appears to have been carried too far. Surely, it is not only the result of the new and more spacious hanging, or of the hard light that has been streaming down upon them during these last bright March days of east wind, that many look so painfully fresh and clean. I do not know exactly what has been done to them, if anything; I cannot say whether or no they have, while waiting to be re-hung, passed through the restorer's or the cleaner's hands; but certainly they have an air of having been recently and thoroughly done up, though the worst shock is when one comes to Gainsborough's Market Cart, and sees the wide space of blue sky to the left of the picture shining with cleanliness as if it had been painted

ed but yesterday, and then not by a master of color.

In the basement the hanging is provisional, so that it calls for no criticism. This is fortunate, for the walls and screens present a bewildering assortment of all schools and all periods. When more new rooms are built, or more old rooms remodelled, the disorder will right itself. It is to be hoped that then as few pictures as possible will be left downstairs. The rooms are large and spacious, but, of course, there can be no top light, and in the cross lights the paintings can with difficulty be seen; and, worse, screens upon which they are placed make a series of those little alcoves that are so irritating in many Continental galleries and that the National Gallery has hitherto been able to do without. But it will be time to criticise when the additions and alterations to the building are entirely finished.

The Mill is attracting more people to the National Gallery than even the new rooms. Lent by Lord Lansdowne for an interval before its sale, it is placed temporarily in the small room where Francia and the others of his school used to hang. The object is that the public, seeing it once more, will realize the urgent need of raising one hundred thousand pounds, to which Lord Lansdowne will generously contribute his little mite of five thousand, and so save it for the nation before it has fallen into the rapacious grasp of the inconsiderate American who has offered to buy it at the price. To expect a government, obliged to meet the bill for old age pensions and new Dreadnoughts and increased Ministerial salaries and no end of other necessities, to pay the required sum for such a luxury as another Rembrandt is out of the question. There is not much hope from the National Art Collections Fund, which, in the last emergency of the kind, only scraped through with the help of the anonymous donor who contributed forty of the seventy thousand the Duke of Norfolk demanded for his Holbein—the millionaire is rare who will give away a small fortune for any but the pictures that go into his own collection. And from the general public, as a last resource, there is no hope at all. They may crowd to gaze at the painting, but that is not because of any appreciation of its beauty or admiration for Rembrandt, but simply because of the money it represents: a hundred thousand pounds' picture is not to be seen every day. And, moreover, the public are having enough nonsense talked to them to make them hesitate to put their hands in their pockets, even if they felt so inclined. They are told that Rembrandt has already delivered his message to England—though just what this means I doubt if anybody could explain—and that therefore The Mill is not essential

to the happiness of the country. They are assured that it is valuable mainly as an expression of Protestantism—though heaven knows how or why—and that as this expression is found also in the landscapes of Crome and Constable, therefore the Briton may cheerfully let the Rembrandt go to convert the poor heathen American who still believes that Benjamin West and Copley are masters. Some suggest that the hundred thousand pounds would be better spent upon painters whose message has not yet been delivered to England, the "Post-Impressionists" by choice; or else on the young English geniuses who curiously happen to be the friends of those who think they should be encouraged. Royal Academicians are horrified at the waste, when they remember that the income of a hundred thousand pounds could purchase the four best pictures of the year until the end of time; enterprising editors send round circulars to people with names to ask if they think The Mill "a bargain" at the price. On the other hand, there are appeals to public patriotism—is England to see her treasures depart for other lands without a protest? There are appeals to public sentiment—think of the inestimable privilege of gazing upon the picture of the mill where Rembrandt was born and received his earliest impressions, even though the authorities say he was not born there at all. In fact, the old floodgates of Victorian sentiment have been opened.*

It is clear that the excitement within a few years over the Rokeby Venus and the Duke of Norfolk's Holbein, and now, over Lord Lansdowne's Rembrandt, has made England feel the necessity of taking some such measures as Italy has already taken, if the great masterpieces in private collections are not to be lost to the nation. Only the other day, the question came up again in the House of Commons, and indeed it may be the anticipation of the government's interference that has caused some of the owners of these masterpieces—heavily burdened as they are with death duties and new land taxes and unearned increment taxes and super-income taxes—to part with them and make an honest hundred thousand or so when they can.

N. N.

Atkinson, Mentzer & Grover announce the transfer of the publications of the Davis Press of Worcester, Mass., to their list, with the exception of the "School Art Book," which has been sold to the National Arts Publishing Company of Boston.

The new volume in the "Ars Una: Species Mille," general history of art series, "The History of Art in France," by Louis Hourticq, which is promised for May by the Scribners, is said to be modelled on Reinach's "Apollo."

*A dispatch dated April 3 states officially that The Mill has been sold, probably to an American.

The *Bulletin* of the Brooklyn Institute in recent weekly numbers has printed a series of articles by Prof. William H. Goodyear on the Baptistery, Leaning Tower, and Cathedral of Pisa. On the basis of his own surveys, the photographic records of which are part of the collection of the museum of the Institute, Professor Goodyear discusses leaning constructions (the Baptistery falls under this class), curves in plan and in elevation, and various calculated irregularities in building. The arguments and verbal descriptions are supported by plates of excellent clearness and adequate scale. Most of the photographs have been recently taken by a new and expeditious method of sighting across a plumb line suspended in the camera itself. Students of architecture, and for that matter working architects, will find these numbers of the *Bulletin* useful and instructive.

Important excavations have been carried on by Mr. J. Hatzidakis, ephor of antiquities in Crete, near the village of Tylisos, about six miles west of Candia and Knossos. They have resulted in the discovery of a palace with surrounding buildings which belong to the same period as the other Minoan palaces in Crete. It also was destroyed by violence and fire, and many of the movable articles seem to have been carried away; but enough remains to show the high state of civilization in which the occupants lived. Already an area of about 600 metres—that is about half the palace—has been unearthed. About six metres west of the palace was discovered a building, 25 by 15 metres in extent, divided into five apartments. The palace was two or three stories in height, as can be seen from the remains of staircases. It belongs to the late Minoan period, but traces of the Middle Minoan period have been found in a lower stratum. The objects unearthed are similar in character to those found at the palaces of Knossos and Phaestos. Most important among them are: huge bronze cauldrons and other vessels; a small bronze statuette, about twelve inches high, of beautiful execution; many fragments of pottery; several statette vases; two large pedestals for lamps; and a fine *rhinton* of obsidian. There were also found two tablets with Cretan script, and fragments of wall-painting. A few yards' distance from the palace was discovered a pit filled with sherds of the Early and Middle Minoan periods, from which circumstance it is hoped that objects belonging to these earlier periods will also be discovered. To the north of Tylisos, near the river Gazes, a cemetery of the Middle Minoan period was discovered, and near the shore a settlement of the Minoan period. These will be explored later.

To the "General History of Art" (Scribner), which is issued in five languages simultaneously, has been added Corrado Ricci's "Art in Northern Italy." The record in painting, sculpture, and architecture, has been carried down to recent times, and an extraordinary amount of information has been packed within the covers of this pocket volume with its hundreds of small illustrations. Naturally condensation is the rule. Such artists as Titian and Correggio have to be dispatched with half a dozen pages each. Yet Commendatore Ricci contrives to make his text always vivacious and readable, and the little book is a model of its kind. We note only the minor inconsistency that Vit-

ture Pisanello appears on page 40 under his traditional name, while on page 112 he receives his new style of Antonio. Giorgio Schiavone on page 101 is a palpable misprint for Gregorio. In the last paragraph of page 53, first line, the translator should have inserted the word *former* to make the reference clear. In general the book deserves unstinted praise. It is an eloquent argument for the expert as the best popularizer.

Sir Richard Rivington Holmes, whose death in his seventy-sixth year is reported from London, was librarian at Windsor Castle from 1870 to 1906, wrote the lives of Queen Victoria and King Edward, was archaeologist to the British Abyssinian expedition in 1888, and achieved some distinction as a designer and a painter in water colors. Other books by him include: "Naval and Military Trophies," "Specimens of Royal, Fine, and Historical Bookbinding," and an edition of the "Book of Common Prayer," with titles and borders designed and drawn by himself.

Sir Caspar Purdon Clarke, formerly director of the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York, died last week at his home in London, aged sixty-five. He was educated at Gaultier's Collegiate School, Sydenham, at Beaucourt's School in Bologna, and at the National Art Training School in South Kensington. At the age of thirty-two he was appointed architect of the Indian section of the Paris Exposition in 1878, and immediately afterwards he was commissioned by the South Kensington Museum to collect objects of art in Germany, Italy, and Spain; in 1892 he was made keeper in this museum of all the art collections, and in 1896 became its director. The English government made him its royal commissioner to the Paris Exposition of 1900 and to the St. Louis Exposition of 1904. In the following year the Metropolitan Museum engaged his services, and he quickly instituted his policy to make the museum attractive to the common people. Some estimate of his services to the museum was given in the *Nation* of July 7, last year, just after his retirement, on account of failing health. He was a fellow of the Royal Society of Antiquaries, of the Royal Society of British Architects, a member of the Royal Asiatic Society, of the Royal Academy of Madrid, and was honored by the order of the Crown of Prussia.

Finance

SOME ILLUSIONS OF CORPORATION FINANCE.

Ten years ago this month, when a very remarkable economic situation, such as does not twice occur in a generation, had swept off their feet some of the most experienced financiers, it became the word of the day that forces were at work which had never been at work before, and that, therefore, practical financiers might do things which all their previous experience had pronounced impossible or improper. This notion had its field of activity, as such notions usually do, in corporation finance. It

took shape especially in four startling theories, all proclaimed and applied by eminent financial leaders of the day. First, the general welfare would be promoted if competing corporations were to buy one another's stock, exchange directors with one another, and arrange their affairs harmoniously. Second, the investor's best interests would be subserved if a company's capital stock should be made so large that nobody could control it, and hence that existing managements could never be unseated. Third, a huge combination of companies did not need to husband its working capital, because, when it needed money, it could borrow from the banks. Fourth, stock was entitled to dividends and ought to get them, no matter what the origin of the stock or the trade conditions of the moment.

In the ten succeeding years, these extraordinary theories, one by one, have been exploded. The first was shattered when it was found that "community-of-interest" directors were not allowed either to direct or to learn the secrets of a company. The real possibilities of capitalization so large as to guarantee immunity of a management from discipline were exposed to public view when the stupid trade policy of the Amalgamated Copper was discovered, and when the most powerful financial interest in the country had to take a hand in stopping the Steel Trust management from an act of incredible folly. The problem of working capital had some new light thrown upon it in 1903, when the Lake Superior Company went down, the Cotton Duck and New England Yarn corporations assessed their unlucky shareholders and the Steel Trust had to stop dividends, in each case because of the lack of a proper operating surplus.

The theory, finally, that a stock, however created, was entitled to dividends, had some awkward blows, but it has persisted longer than the others. Not only did it raise its head in the Steel Corporation's attempt of 1903 to buy up its own preferred shares with borrowed money, so as to leave the inflated common shares in the field of dividends, but it reappeared, not six months ago, in the argument at the Interstate Commission hearing, to the effect that transportation rates should be put up high enough to guarantee dividends on stock of every railway, whatever its capitalization, situation, or policy. It has once more cut a figure, along with a dash of pretty nearly all the other exploded illusions above referred to, in a somewhat sensational controversy of the past week.

The American Woollen Company, organized among the \$3,593,000,000 industrial incorporations of the year 1899, had outstanding lately \$40,000,000 preferred stock and \$29,500,000 common. The preferred, being "cumulative," had to pay 7 per cent. dividends; the com-

mon has never paid anything. In 1908, the preferred stock's dividend was not fully earned; in 1910, the surplus earned, after greatly reducing depreciation charges, was only 2½ per cent. on the common stock. During 1909, \$5,000,000 was raised by sale of new preferred—"for the purpose," the president explained, "of meeting extraordinary requirements in the purchase of wool, and in the manufacture of goods already sold and still in demand."

Barely a year and a half after this recourse to the market, the management has now sent out to shareholders this announcement:

After nearly twelve years of patient waiting, it would seem that the time had come when some consideration was due to the common shareholders of your company. . . . Your directors have felt that they could not justifiably enter on a dividend-paying course on the common shares until they were wholly confident of being able to continue that dividend with the same regularity and reliability that now attach to the preferred shares.

It seemed, therefore, in the interest of the preferred shareholders, that your directors should avail themselves of the privilege allowed by the laws of the State of New Jersey to buy in the open market the shares of the common stock, and this your directors have done, until they have purchased 95,011 shares.

Nothing is said as to whence the \$3,000,000 or so required to buy these 95,000 common shares was obtained. In default of such explanation, it has been imagined that, directly or indirectly, the \$5,000,000 cash raised by sale of new preferred stock has served the purpose. If this were so, it would present the novel situation of a company borrowing at 7 per cent. to buy up stock paying nothing and not required to pay anything.

This may not have been the fact; but if not, the only alternative is that \$3,000,000 of a company's cash assets have been employed to purchase something for which the company had no use whatever. This being so, it will be interesting to see what sort of family discussion is evoked when the special meeting, called to vote upon this remarkable fiscal undertaking, convenes on April 28. It is hardly necessary to explain what a Pandora's box of mischievous financiering would be opened, through the adoption of the theory that directors of a company were entitled, at their will, to use the cash resources of the company, or the proceeds of its obligations, to buy up its stock for cash. That is a vastly different thing from reducing share capital by the voluntary action of the shareholder and with no expenditure of cash. The absurdity of this new expedient, it would seem, is only paralleled by the hazards invoked through giving any "inside management" such a chance for secret ventures on the market.

Considered in this light, the Woollen

Company affair is a genuinely important incident of the day. It is financial experiments of the sort, their reception by the community as a whole, and their results in corporation policy, which give their particular color to an economic period. Sometimes a relatively unimportant incident, like the shareholders' meeting of the Metropolitan Street Railway, compelled in 1902 to approve the lease of that company to a four-mile Westchester trolley line, is so evident a landmark of the day as to become historic.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, L. C. The Autobiography of Shakespeare. Baker & Taylor. \$1.50 net.
Anderson, A. J. The Artistic Side of Photography. Dodd, Mead. \$4 net.
Ayer, F. F. Bell and Wing. Putnam. \$2.50 net.
Baltzell, W. J. Dictionary of Musicians. Ditson.
Baring-Gould, S. Cliff Castles and Cave Dwellings of Europe. Phila.: Lippincott. \$3.50 net.
Barron, D. G. In Defence of the Regalia—1651-2: Being Selections from the Family Papers of the Ogilvies of Barra. Longmans, Green.
Benett, W. Justice and Happiness. Frowde.
Ennott, A. The Human Machine. Doran. 75 cents net.
Benson, E. F. Account Rendered. Doubleday, Page.
Bent, A. H. A Bibliography of the White Mountains. Boston, Mass.: Appalachian Mountain Club.
Bergson's Creative Evolution. Translated by A. Mitchell. Holt. \$2.50 net.
Blennerhassett, C. Louis XIV and Madame de Maintenon. Scribner. \$3.75 net.
Borchardt, H. H. Carl Hauptmann. Lemcke & Buechner.
Boyle, J. R. The Making of Abraham Lincoln. Commandery of the State of Pennsylvania, Military Order of the Loyal Legion of the U. S. 50 cents.
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